

RFF REPORT

SEPTEMBER 2001

Fulfilling the Promise

*A Governance Analysis of the U.S. Response to
the World Food Summit Goal of Cutting Hunger
in Half by 2015*

MICHAEL R. TAYLOR AND JODY S. TICK

FOREWORD BY G. EDWARD SCHUH



RESOURCES
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Executive Summary

Background

At the World Food Summit in 1996, the United States and 185 other countries adopted the goal of cutting global hunger in half by 2015, from 800 million people chronically undernourished in terms of calories or other nutrients to 400 million. The summit, which was convened by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), also adopted an international plan of action for achieving this goal. In 1999, the United States issued its U.S. Action Plan on Food Security setting forth the steps the government would take to help achieve the summit's hunger reduction goal. At the summit and in statements accompanying its action plan, the United States stressed the importance of global hunger to American national security and economic interests.

We have examined how the U.S. government prepared for and participated in the World Food Summit and has worked since then to respond to the summit's hunger reduction goal. This report documents and analyses the U.S. effort from a governance perspective, focusing on how the United States has organized, managed, and financed its food security effort. The U.S. Action Plan addressed food security at both the national and international levels, but here we focus solely on the international dimension of the problem.

The U.S. Action Plan was developed by the Interagency Working Group on Food Security (IWG), which was formed in 1996 to oversee U.S. preparations for the World Food Summit and implementation of the summit commitments. IWG is cochaired by officials from the Department of State, the Department of Agriculture (USDA), and the Agency for International Development (USAID) and includes representatives from 18 federal agencies that have some role in domestic or international food security. IWG developed the action plan in consultation with the government's Food Security Advisory Committee, which includes a diverse array of private sector stakeholders and experts.

The action plan's seven broad themes provide a sound conceptual framework for achieving the World Food Summit goal. The plan emphasizes political and economic systems that protect human rights and reduce poverty, coupled with focused efforts to build food systems that are economically, socially, and environmentally sustainable. Many people involved in the summit and the development of the action plan believe the process has fostered positive dialogue about food security among government agencies and stakeholders.

Findings on Governance Issues

The U.S. Action Plan was developed outside the normal programmatic and budget planning processes of the agencies involved and with the understanding that no new resources would be available. As a result, its 69 action items addressing the international dimension of food security thus consist primarily of a compilation of existing programs and ideas for addressing hunger, rather than significant new initiatives. Moreover, from a governance perspective, the U.S. effort to implement the action plan has fallen well short of what is required to achieve the declared U.S. objectives. This conclusion is supported by the following findings:

IWG has proven not to be an effective governance mechanism for achieving the summit hunger reduction goal.

- IWG has no authority to make binding decisions on program policy, priorities, or resource allocation.
- IWG has no authority to hold agencies accountable for carrying out the action plan or achieving the World Food Summit goal.
- IWG meets sporadically and lacks the permanent staff that would be required to oversee the government's food security effort.

Implementation of the action plan lacks consistent, accountable leadership.

- No senior official in the government has full-time responsibility and accountability for implementation of the action plan and achievement of the hunger reduction goal.
- The IWG co-chairs also have other demanding, full-time jobs in the Department of State, USAID and USDA.
- The IWG co-chairs are in constant flux, with 15 people having served as co-chairs since 1996 for an average duration of 13 months each.

No resource plan or budget commitment for implementing the action plan is in place.

- There has been no government estimate of the cost of implementing the plan and no budget proposals tied to achieving the hunger reduction goal.
- Only minor increases in funding for food security-related development assistance programs have occurred.
- Resources for food aid, the largest food security-related program in dollar terms, have fluctuated for foreign policy and domestic economic reasons unrelated to the goal of cutting hunger in half by 2015.

No formal approach exists for coordinating the overall U.S. effort on food security and ensuring it works to achieve the objectives of the action plan in a focused, integrated way.

- IWG lacks the empowerment and practical capability to coordinate and integrate the food security activities of operating agencies, and no other entity has this charge.
- There has been no priority setting among the 69 action items addressing international food security.
- Management of food aid is independent of the IWG and action plan process.

There is no established mechanism for monitoring progress on the plan's action items.

- No clear benchmarks are in place for measuring progress on the action plan.
- There is no regular reporting requirement or systematic compilation of information on implementation of the plan's action items.
- The action plan is not being used as a management tool to ensure the U.S. is meeting its World Food Summit commitments.

Questions for the United States

In November 2001, FAO will convene a meeting titled the "World Food Summit Five Years Later," at which the United States and other countries will be asked to renew their commitment to the summit goal and the effort required to achieve it in light of a wide recognition that the world is not on track to

meet the 2015 goal. Based on the U.S. record so far in responding to the summit goal, significant unresolved questions remain about the U.S. commitment to achieving global food security, including:

- What does the United States government think about the importance of the global hunger problem to U.S. interests?
- Is the United States committed to the Summit Plan of Action and hunger reduction goal?
- What resource commitment is the United States prepared to make?
- How can the United States focus and manage its contribution to achieving the summit goal?

Recommendations

To be effective and credible on food security at the November FAO meeting and beyond, the U.S. government must resolve these questions and close the gap that currently exists between the language it uses to describe the importance of food security and the actual governance response to the problem. We make the following specific recommendations:

- **The United States should re-examine how the goal of reducing global hunger relates to U.S. interests and decide how this goal ranks among its other international objectives.**
- **If the World Food Summit hunger reduction goal is an important international priority, the United States should reaffirm its commitment to the Summit Plan of Action but develop a more focused strategy for helping to reduce hunger in specific, measurable ways.**
- **The United States should adopt a resource plan and make a budget commitment that is commensurate with the importance of the hunger reduction goal to U.S. interests and reflects the ways the United States believes it can best contribute to achieving it.**
- **The president should publicly articulate U.S. interests and objectives on food security and assign overall leadership responsibility for the international dimension of the problem to the secretary of state. The secretary should delegate operational responsibility to the administrator of USAID, who should have clear authority, responsibility, and accountability for managing the international food security effort.**

Conclusion

In a recent speech at the World Bank, President George W. Bush said that “a world where some live in comfort and plenty, while half of the human race lives on less than \$2 a day is neither just, nor stable.” The new USAID Administrator Andrew S. Natsios has emphasized the importance of addressing poverty and hunger, especially in Africa, and has included agriculture among “the four pillars of USAID.” The FAO meeting in November and the fiscal year 2003 budget the president submits to Congress early in 2002 will be the first indications of how the new administration intends to convert these ideas into concrete, programmatic action.

The lesson of the past is that without clarity of interest and purpose, sustained political commitment at the highest level, and the establishment of workable and accountable governance mechanisms, a large gap will remain between public pronouncement and effective action.

Foreword

It is in the best economic and political interest of the United States to reduce the number of poverty-stricken people in the world. Increased per capita income among the poor in other countries is one of the keys to expanding employment in the United States and to sustaining the growth of our economy. The reduction of poverty is also the key to reducing ethnic and other tensions around the world.

The reduction in poverty requires investment in human capital among and for the poor and disadvantaged. Such investments help raise productivity and, in turn, per capita incomes. They also heighten competitiveness in international markets and thus promote the international division of labor and specialization so important in small, poverty-stricken countries.

Nutrition—food security—is perhaps the simplest and most basic form of human capital. Its impact in promoting economic development and reducing poverty is pervasive. For example, in low-income developing countries, where manual labor is important, better nutrition can increase the physical productivity of the labor force. More generally, however, nutrition is the basis for better health, more efficient education and learning, and the absorption of cognitive and vocational skills. Ultimately, these are the means by which an economy capitalizes on investments in new knowledge, either within or outside the economy. They are also the crucial factors that determine how fast an economy will grow and how equitably its income is distributed.

The United States seemed to recognize these rather basic elements of economic policy when it made its commitments at the World Food Summit to help reduce the number of food-insecure people in the world by half by 2015. However, as Taylor and Tick document in this report, there was many a slip between cup and lip. Although the rhetorical commitment was there, the leadership and political commitment were lacking.

The kind of institutional analysis Taylor and Tick undertake in this important study of the U.S. followup to the World Food Summit is a critical component in improving economic and social policy. Policy, after all, is imbedded in institutional arrangements. The implementation of the policy can be no better than the performance of institutions, ranging all the way from the original design of the policies to the institutions that implement them. Equally important is the role of governance institutions in assuring that the commitments political leaders give at an international meeting like the World Food Summit are translated into actions that deliver.

Taylor and Tick have produced a perceptive and cogent analysis of the followup to the World Food Summit, and in a very timely way. We are indebted to their efforts. So are the hundreds of millions of poverty-stricken people around the world who are food insecure, and who might benefit from improved U.S. policy.

G. Edward Schuh

Regents Professor and Director

Orville and Jane Freeman Center on International Economic Policy

Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs

University of Minnesota

Acknowledgments

The data and information underlying this report were collected through a search and review of the relevant literature, review of government documents and publications, and interviews with people involved in the World Food Summit and its followup, both within and outside the government. The authors are particularly indebted to the people who took the time to talk with us about this subject and provide information, including Ray Almeida, Bread for the World; David Atwood, Office of Agriculture and Food Security, U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID); David Beckmann, Bread for the World; Gezahegne Bekele, U.S. General Accounting Office (GAO); Francesca Bravo, International Cooperation and Development program, U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA); Ralph Cummings, Office of Agriculture and Food Security, USAID; Dana Dalrymple, Office of Agriculture and Food Security, USAID; Walter P. Falcon, Stanford University; Wayne Ferris, GAO; Tom Freedman, former senior adviser to the President; Patty Fulton, Cooperative State Research, Education and Extension Service, USDA; Patricia Garimendi, former national food security coordinator, USDA; Madeleine Gauthier, Office of Sustainable Development, USAID; Dan Glickman, former secretary of Agriculture, USDA; Buzz Guroff, former national food security coordinator, USDA; Roberta Hilbruner, Office of Environment and Natural Resources, USAID; Richard Hoehn, Bread for the World; Violet Kibirsky, Office of Budget and Program Analysis, USDA; Melinda Kimble, U.N. Foundation; Jean Kucera, University of Minnesota; Gary Laidig, Foreign Agricultural Service, USDA; Jonathon Landeck, Peace Corps; Asma Lateef, Bread for the World; Jim Lawrence, Agricultural Research Service, USDA; Jim McDonald, Bread for the World; Cheryl Morden, International Center for Research on Women; Arlyne Meyers, Agricultural Research Service, USDA; Mary Anne Normille, Economic Research Service, USDA; Ed Schuh, University of Minnesota and cochair of the U.S. Food Security Advisory Committee; August Schumacher, former undersecretary of Agriculture for Farm and Foreign Agricultural Services; Trisha Schmirler, Technical Information Specialist at the Food Security Resource Center at Food Aid Management; J. Dirck Stryker, Associates for International Resources and Development; John Swanson, Office of Agriculture and Food Security, USAID; Phillip J. Thomas, General Accounting Office; Susan Thompson, Office of Agriculture and Food Security, USAID; Robert Tiller, Bread for the World; and Dennis Weller, Bureau for Africa, USAID.

We want especially to acknowledge the assistance and wise counsel of Professor G. Edward Schuh at the beginning and subsequent stages of this project, including his careful review and critique of a draft version of the report and gracious offer to write a foreword. We also greatly appreciate the comments of other people who reviewed and provided valuable comments on drafts of this report, including David Beckmann, Ralph Cummings, Buzz Guroff, Eric Olsen, Gus Schumacher, Philip Thomas, Wayne Ferris and Gezahegne Bekele. Additional thanks go to Resources for the Future for its generous support of this project and to Marta Montoro for her excellent research help. That said, the opinions expressed and any errors of omission or commission contained in this report are solely the responsibility of the authors.

Michael R. Taylor

Jody S. Tick

Fulfilling the Promise

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Introduction

In November 1996, the United States participated with 185 other countries in the United Nations' World Food Summit in Rome. The World Food Summit was convened by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations to address the problem of chronic hunger—understood as undernourishment in terms of calories or other nutrients—among 800 million of the world's people. The summit produced two documents: the Rome Declaration on World Food Security and the World Food Summit Plan of Action. With these documents, the participating countries (1) committed themselves to the goal of cutting hunger in half by 2015; (2) adopted the strategy for reducing hunger that was laid out in the Summit Plan of Action; (3) agreed to develop country-level action plans for achieving the summit goal; and (4) agreed to implement, monitor, and follow up on the Summit Plan of Action in cooperation with the international community.

In March 1999, the U.S. government issued its Action Plan on Food Security. The plan was developed by the Interagency Working Group on Food Security (IWG), which represents 18 agencies and is cochaired by officials from the Department of Agriculture (USDA), the Agency for International Development (USAID), and the Department of State. The U.S. plan describes a comprehensive set of programs and initiatives organized around seven major themes that closely parallel the Summit Plan of Action: (1) building economic security and a supportive policy environment for food security; (2) promoting trade and investment; (3) supporting research and education to improve agriculture; (4) fostering economically and environmentally sustainable food systems; (5) strengthening the food security safety net; (6) improving information and mapping on food security; and (7) ensuring food and water safety. In keeping with the summit commitments, the U.S. plan and these seven themes address both domestic and international hunger reduction. Under the seven themes, the plan lays out 13 priority activities and objectives and 69 specific action items addressing the international dimension of the problem.

On its face, the U.S. Action Plan on Food Security is an impressive document. It reflects the best current thinking about what is required to achieve food security in developing countries. It emphasizes political and economic systems that protect human rights and reduce poverty, coupled with focused efforts to build food systems that are economically, socially, and environmentally sustainable. The plan also strikes the right balance in articulating the roles of food aid, which it cites as important for addressing emergencies and meeting short-term needs, and investment in successful food and agricultural systems, which the plan considers the key to long-term food security, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, the most impoverished and food-insecure region of the world. The plan calls for expansion and enhancement of U.S. food security efforts in many areas.

In January 2001, the authors of this report began a study of the U.S. Action Plan and its implementation. Although the plan addresses both domestic and international food security, our study focuses on the elements dealing with food security in developing countries. It is part of a broader effort by researchers at Resources for the Future to examine the impact of policies and programs of Western industrialized nations on food security in developing countries. This study was undertaken in anticipation of FAO's plan to hold another conference, the World Food Summit five years later (WFS:fyl), in November 2001, at which progress on the 1996 summit goal will be reviewed and re-

newed commitments to cut hunger in half by 2015 will be sought. The objective of our study is to help public and private sector participants prepare for WFS:fyl.

The original concept for the study was to make an in-depth assessment of the elements of the U.S. Action Plan that most directly address food and food system needs in developing countries—namely, those dealing with food aid, agricultural development assistance, and research directly related to improving food and agricultural systems. The objective was to analyze progress in implementing these elements of the plan from three perspectives: (1) resource commitments and expenditures; (2) policy consistency between the plan and actual U.S. food aid and development programs; and (3) governance—that is, the manner in which the U.S. government works to carry out the plan.

The initial literature review and interviews with people who were involved in U.S. preparations for the World Food Summit and developing and implementing the U.S. Action Plan revealed, however, that the resource and policy aspects of the study could not be meaningfully addressed outside the context of a clear understanding of the governance issues. The manner in which the U.S. government prepared for the World Food Summit, developed its plan, and manages its activities related to food security largely determines and explains the government's performance to date in implementing the plan. Moreover, as the U.S. government prepares for WFS:fyl, the first questions it must ask about food security concern governance: Where does food security stand as a political priority of the U.S. government? How should food security be integrated into the programmatic and budget process of the executive branch? Who is in charge of implementing the U.S. Action Plan and meeting the commitments made at the World Food Summit? Who is fairly accountable for results?

Based on those observations, the authors have focused in this report on the governance issues and on posing the questions that need to be addressed in preparation for WFS:fyl in November. The authors hope this report will make a positive contribution to the government's preparation for that conference and to future policy debates about the U.S. contribution to global food security.

The story of how the U.S. government prepared for, participated in, and has followed up on the 1996 World Food Summit has positive and negative elements. On the positive side, there has been a conscientious effort by many people in the government and the private sector to respond seriously to FAO's call for the summit and to adopting a concrete goal for reducing global hunger. Dozens of highly motivated people at USDA, USAID, and the Department of State worked to prepare for the summit and develop the U.S. Action Plan. These activities stimulated useful interaction, which might not otherwise have occurred, among the involved government agencies and between the agencies and private sector stakeholders, such as the food industry, consumer organizations, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) concerned with hunger and development. This process helped raise the visibility of the food security issue and contributed to some changes in policy, such as the decision to stop the decline in U.S. funding for the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research. More broadly, the seven themes set forth in the resulting plan provide a sound conceptual framework for thinking about the U.S. contribution to global food security.

On the negative side, the U.S. Action Plan is an action plan in name only. Below its sound conceptual surface, it is largely a digest of existing programs coupled with ideas and aspirations for improving the U.S. food security effort. It was developed outside the normal programmatic and budget planning processes of the agencies involved and with the understanding that no new resources would be available. This meant not only that the enhancements in the U.S. effort called for in the plan went largely unfunded, but also that no agency or official had ownership of the plan as a whole, and there was no clear management responsibility and accountability for the plan's success.

The Interagency Working Group on Food Security played a coordinating role in the development of the U.S. Action Plan and was charged with overseeing its implementation, but it was not empowered and has not taken on the task of implementing it as a true action plan. There has thus been no functioning governance mechanism for carrying out basic tasks that would normally be associated with implementing an action plan, such as: (1.) setting priorities among the 69 action items and allocating resources accordingly; (2.) developing budget submissions tied to carrying out the plan and achieving the summit goal; (3.) coordinating implementation of action items to maximize efficiency and effectiveness; (4.) ensuring policy coherence among the agencies responsible for implementing various action items and the compatibility of agency programs with the policies imbedded in the plan; (5.) establishing performance benchmarks, timetables, or other tools for measuring progress in implementing the plan; and (6.) systematically collecting information for monitoring progress.

This report will document those observations, analyze the current situation regarding governance of the U.S. food security effort, and suggest some governance-related questions the U.S. government should consider in preparing for WFS:fyl. These questions address the need for (1) clarity about the nature of the U.S. interest in global food security and how it fits with other international priorities; (2) clarity about the U.S. commitment to the summit process and hunger reduction goal; (3) a resource plan and budget commitment commensurate with U.S. interests and objectives; and (4) clearly identified leadership that is empowered and accountable to focus and manage the U.S. food security effort. The report begins with a review of U.S. preparation for the 1996 World Food Summit and the U.S. government's position going into that meeting. It then summarizes the outcome of the summit, describes the development and content of the U.S. Action Plan, and presents some data and information on implementation to date of selected elements of the plan. The remainder of the report analyzes the governance issues noted above, presents questions that the authors consider relevant to the government's preparation for WFS:fyl, and recommends steps that would improve the governance and effectiveness of the U.S. food security effort.

In developing this critique of the U.S. response to the World Food Summit, we recognize that there are many ongoing programs at USAID, USDA, and other agencies addressing food security internationally. These include food aid, agricultural development assistance, research and education, and a host of other programs that can improve food security. These programs are being carried out by many dedicated people, working in government and in private organizations, in the United States and in the field. The people and resources committed to these programs provide the foundation for any future contribution the United States makes to achieving the hunger reduction goal. In addition, over the past few years there have been a number of positive and noteworthy initiatives that were pursued separately from the World Food Summit; these include debt relief for developing countries, important trade agreements with African countries intended to help expand their economies, and large-scale humanitarian food aid. It is not the purpose of this report, however, to examine or evaluate these programs. This report instead takes as its starting point the commitments made by the United States at the World Food Summit to work in a new way with new intensity to cut hunger in half by 2015 and asks how we are working to meet those commitments.

It is also beyond the scope of this report to analyze the role of Congress and the full range of political factors that influence the U.S. response to the challenge of international food security. Congressional action and political support are obviously essential to success, and the politics of international food security deserves its own thorough study. This report, however, focuses on the governance issues that the executive branch must address to carry out its stated plan and achieve the summit goal.

Preparation for the World Food Summit

The 1996 World Food Summit was initiated by the director general of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, Jacques Diouf, who began discussing the idea with leaders of U.N. member countries in 1994.¹ The idea was to follow up on FAO's 1974 World Food Conference, at which the United States and other countries had joined in a declaration vowing to achieve world food security within 10 years.² Director General Diouf³ was motivated by the facts that 20 years after the 1974 conference, food security had not been achieved, and that 800 million people—about 20% of the developing world's population—remained chronically undernourished. Diouf's objective was to renew the political commitment of U.N. member countries to food security and gain agreement on policies and strategies that would address the root causes of hunger.⁴

The summit idea was initially greeted with skepticism by the United States and some other countries.⁵ The U.S. concerns included the cost of the summit at a time when the United Nations was holding a number of other international conferences and summit meetings,⁶ and the possibility that a food security summit would become a pledging conference at which the low-income, food-deficit countries⁷ would seek greater commitments of assistance, including food aid, without addressing the social, economic, and political problems that contribute to chronic food insecurity.⁸ The United States was particularly concerned that the summit not focus on new mechanisms for food aid and expansion of existing food aid programs at a time when global food stocks were low, grain prices were high, and the U.S. budget deficit was still not under control.⁹ These concerns were substantiated by a report issued in 1995 by the USDA Economic Research Service, which projected a doubling of food aid needs in the coming decade, based on current trends.¹⁰ This report also analyzed developments in trade liberalization, which it projected to result in reduced agricultural surpluses, more volatile prices, and less grain in government stockpiles. These factors would make it less likely than ever that hunger would be solved by food aid.

In an effort “[t]o dispel any misgivings that some in Washington might still have” about the conference, Diouf wrote to the State Department in April 1995, assuring the United States that the World Food Summit “is not a pledging conference. It is not aiming at the creation of a new financial mechanism, institution or bureaucracy.”¹¹ Diouf's letter sought further to assure the United States that the conference discussions would rest on a strong scientific and technical foundation regarding the root causes and solutions of the hunger problem. He recited the broad base of international support for the summit, especially among developing countries, and stressed the importance of U.S. involvement:

*The cooperation and support of your Government and other Member Countries will be necessary to achieve results that are scientifically based and socially acceptable and will therefore be credible and convincing enough to justify a commitment from the different partners to take the necessary action-oriented follow-up measures on a voluntary basis. Only then will we be able to prove that the political will, technical know-how and the economic means used cooperatively can change the projections of past trends and avoid the unacceptable forecast of three quarters of a billion people under-nourished in 2010.*¹²

U.S. government decisionmaking about participation in the World Food Summit was driven initially by the USDA Foreign Agricultural Service (FAS).¹³ In September 1995, then FAS Administrator August Schumacher, Jr., acknowledged that “[w]ith dwindling resources for international development, payment of U.N. assessments, and meeting the world’s food aid needs, the United States is in a tenuous position to be wearing the mantle of leadership at the Summit.”¹⁴ He nevertheless recommended to Eugene Moos, then USDA undersecretary for Farm and Foreign Agricultural Services, that the U.S. government “aggressively support greater world food security and the Summit.” In support of this recommendation, Schumacher cited the view that the key to food security is not “significantly larger amounts of official development assistance” but national policy actions in developing countries to “encourage market mechanisms and private investment, political stability, and population planning.”¹⁵ He noted that U.S. expertise in agriculture and agricultural research and the investment potential of U.S. agribusiness were “highly prized around the world” and that a commitment to these things, coupled with existing U.S. food aid and development assistance programs, “would be a tenable approach.”

On September 22, 1995, Undersecretary Moos approved the recommendation to “aggressively support” food security and the summit.¹⁶ He also accepted Administrator Schumacher’s recommendation to use the 1995 Economic Research Service study as the basis for arguing in the context of summit preparations “for the long-term deemphasis of food aid in the food security equation, with food deficit countries taking actions to become more self-reliant.”¹⁷ Then Secretary of Agriculture Dan Glickman ratified these decisions and agreed that the “U.S. should take a strong leadership role here.”¹⁸

It was on this basis that the U.S. government began preparing for the summit, which FAO set for November 1996. In January 1996, Undersecretary Moos wrote to then USAID Administrator Brian Atwood and then Acting Assistant Secretary of State for International Organizations George Ward, seeking concurrence on a statement of U.S. objectives for the summit. This statement, reproduced in full in Appendix A, stressed (1) increased self-reliance by developing countries¹⁹; (2) demonstration of a continued U.S. leadership role in supporting developing country efforts; (3) gaining consensus on FAO’s food security role in the areas of policy advice to countries committed to achieving self-reliance and sharing agricultural expertise; and (4) assuring that the ground rules for the summit, such as that it produce measurable and accountable results and not be a pledging conference, be observed.

USDA also consulted with the State Department and USAID on the need for a high-level interagency task force to oversee preparation for the summit. In early 1995, an interagency group of staff-level officials from USDA, USAID, and the State Department had begun working together in anticipation of the summit, but then Undersecretary of State Timothy Wirth and Undersecretary Moos saw the need for a senior, policy-level coordinating mechanism to oversee preparation of a U.S. position paper for the summit and coordinate among the agencies on policy issues.²⁰ Moos and Wirth agreed with USAID Administrator Atwood to form the Interagency Working Group on Food Security (IWG) and serve as cochairs. The 18 IWG member agencies are listed in Appendix B.

Avram “Buzz” Guroff, a senior staff member of the FAS International Cooperation and Development program, was named the U.S. national secretary for the World Food Summit. In this capacity, Guroff provided senior staff support to IWG and chaired what became known as the Core Group, comprising staff from USAID, USDA, the State Department, and the Department of Commerce.

The Core Group carried out the interagency staff work required to prepare for the summit.²¹ IWG began its work in April 1996.

IWG was a creature of the agencies involved. It had no formal charter from the President, but it was de facto the highest-level entity in the U.S. government responsible for summit preparations.²² At the outset, it was led by officials who were strongly committed to food security and the summit process. Undersecretary Moos had provided early initiative and energy for the project, and by all accounts, Undersecretary Wirth provided strong leadership, seeing the summit process as a vehicle for seriously reviewing U.S. policies pertaining to world food security.²³

The first order of business for IWG was to refine U.S. policy objectives for the summit and determine the future contribution of the United States to food security. This work took place during spring and summer 1996 as IWG prepared the “country paper,” setting forth the government’s position that the United States would present at the summit. After inviting NGOs’ comments on a draft paper at a public forum,²⁴ in July the government issued “The U.S. Contribution to World Food Security—The U.S. Position Paper Prepared for the World Food Summit.”

This paper reflected Undersecretary Moos’s view that the United States should “aggressively support” food security and the summit, as well as Undersecretary Wirth’s strong interest in using the summit to “spur a comprehensive review of its policies and actions—past and present—as they relate to global food security.”²⁵ The U.S. Position Paper declared the “staggering” number of 800 million hungry or malnourished people in the world to be “simply unacceptable.”²⁶ It said:

*For the United States, improving global food security is an essential key to world peace and the national security of our country. Food security is simply too basic and too fundamental to individual human dignity and survival.*²⁷

According to the U.S. Position Paper:

*The United States sees an urgent need for all countries to tackle with renewed intensity the challenge posed by food insecurity. Our humanitarian interests, our economic interests, and our national security are at stake. Moreover, if the United States is not part of the solution, it will only end up dealing with the consequences on a scale that makes recent crises in Somalia, Ethiopia, and Rwanda pale in comparison.*²⁸

The U.S. Position Paper stressed the importance of increased self-reliance by developing countries, based in part on “ever-tighter budget constraints”²⁹ but also on a sense of what policies would work to achieve food security. The paper presented four primary objectives that would guide U.S. participation in the summit:

- adoption of appropriate national policies by all countries as the foundation of food security at all levels;
- assertion of the U.S. role in assisting other countries to overcome hunger and malnutrition through U.S. leadership in agricultural, fisheries, and trade policies; development assistance; agricultural research; long-term environmental forecasting; and as necessary, food aid;
- promotion of the critical role of sustainable development in the agriculture, forestry, and fisheries sectors in achieving food security; and
- recognition of the essential role of women, population stabilization, education, and health in the food security equation.³⁰

Despite the budget reality for foreign assistance and the need for developing countries to “take primary responsibility for improving their own food security with limited external assistance,”³¹ the paper identified eight ways in which the United States would work to improve global food security:

- 1 Share its expertise with selected countries wishing to review and change their national policies to improve food security.
- 2 Enhance U.S. government support for research and technology development in agriculture and related sectors, both at home and abroad.
- 3 Continue support for food security through the use of agricultural programs, development assistance, and food aid. Employ an integrated approach to sustainable development, with a strong emphasis on those countries that show a good-faith willingness to adopt necessary policy reforms.
- 4 Work with countries to achieve freer trade and to assure the benefits are equitably realized.
- 5 Continue support for international efforts to respond to and prevent humanitarian crises that create emergency food aid needs.
- 6 Continue efforts to encourage and facilitate implementation of food security-related actions adopted at recent international conferences or established in recently agreed conventions.
- 7 Work within the multilateral system to improve global approaches to food security.
- 8 Continue to work toward food security for all Americans.³²

Beginning in spring 1996, a series of international meetings were held under the auspices of FAO to reach agreement on a final policy statement and plan of action for the November summit. The United States was concerned that the overall tone of these discussions conflicted with the U.S. approach in three ways: (1) by stressing international responsibility and resource transfer rather than national responsibility for the promotion of self-reliance; (2) by emphasizing national policies characterized by government intervention rather than government facilitation of private initiative; and (3) by tending toward trade protection rather than support of continued trade liberalization.³³

On September 11, the U.S. delegation briefed NGOs on preparations for the summit and for an upcoming meeting of the FAO Committee on World Food Security, which would be the last formal FAO meeting before the summit.³⁴ At the briefing, the groups “uniformly expressed a desire to continue to work” with the government in preparation for the summit. Many of the groups expressed concern that “there is too much focus on trade as THE answer—there should be more language on helping local areas and sustainable development.”³⁵ The groups also asked: “How will the United States implement follow-up? It’s critical that we focus on this, include NGO’s in action plans, and do a good job—we don’t want this Summit to fall apart like the 1974 World Food Conference did.”³⁶

The FAO Committee on World Food Security held its final preparatory discussions in late September, and on November 13, the World Food Summit convened in Rome.

The World Food Summit

The World Food Summit was a large and well-attended international event.³⁷ Delegations from 186 countries participated, including 82 delegations led by heads of state or heads of government.³⁸ In addition, observers were present from 24 U.N. agencies and 56 intergovernmental organizations.³⁹ Approximately 450 nongovernmental organizations were also registered as observers,⁴⁰ and a large contingent of NGOs met separately in Rome to represent the views of 1,200 civil society organizations at the summit. The U.S. delegation was led by Secretary of Agriculture Dan Glickman and included as advisers a cross-section of U.S. NGOs representing the hunger advocacy and relief community, agriculture, the food industry, and academia. See Appendix C for a list of the U.S. delegation members.

The United States had been largely successful during the series of preparatory meetings in shaping the summit documents to be consistent with the U.S. approach. The primary document from the summit was the Rome Declaration on World Food Security, which was adopted by consensus on the summit's opening day. The Rome Declaration expressed the core commitment made by the 186 nations that participated in the summit:

*We pledge our political will and our common and national commitment to achieving food security for all and to an ongoing effort to eradicate hunger in all countries, with an immediate view to reducing the number of undernourished people to half their present level no later than 2015.*⁴¹

The Rome Declaration expressly acknowledged that “the primary responsibility [for attaining food security] rests with individual governments,” which “have to develop an enabling environment and have policies that ensure peace, as well as social, political, and economic stability and equity and gender equality.”⁴² In keeping with the U.S. Position Paper, the Rome Declaration stressed policy reform “conducive to investment in human resource development, research, and infrastructure for achieving food security.”⁴³ The clear focus of the declaration was on building, in chronically food-insecure countries, the sustainable social, economic, and political systems required for long-term food security. Food aid, debt relief, and other international resource transfer measures were mentioned not as solutions in themselves to the problem of food security but as tools for achieving sustainable food security and development.

With this policy framework in mind and “[c]onvinced that the multifaceted character of food security necessitates concerted national action, and effective international efforts to supplement and reinforce national action,”⁴⁴ the countries subscribing to the Rome Declaration made seven specific commitments. These commitments, which were stated in the declaration and elaborated upon in the accompanying World Food Summit Plan of Action, follow:

Commitment One. *We will ensure an enabling political, social and economic environment designed to create the best conditions for the eradication of poverty and for durable peace, based on full and equal participation of women and men, which is most conducive to achieving sustainable food security for all.*⁴⁵

Commitment Two. *We will implement policies aimed at eradicating poverty and inequality and improving physical and economic access by all people, at all times, to sufficient, nutritionally adequate and safe food and its effective utilization.*⁴⁶

Commitment Three. *We will pursue participatory and sustainable food, agriculture, fisheries, forestry and rural development policies and practices in high and low potential areas, which are essential to adequate and reliable food supplies at the household, national, regional and global levels, and combat pests, drought and desertification, considering the multifunctional character of agriculture.*⁴⁷

Commitment Four. *We will strive to ensure that food, agricultural trade and overall trade policies are conducive to fostering food security for all through a fair and market-oriented world trade system.*⁴⁸

Commitment Five. *We will endeavor to prevent and be prepared for natural disasters and man-made emergencies and to meet transitory and emergency food requirements in ways that encourage recovery, rehabilitation, development and a capacity to satisfy future needs.*⁴⁹

Commitment Six. *We will promote optimal allocation and use of public and private investments to foster human resources, sustainable food, agriculture, fisheries and forestry systems, and rural development, in high and low potential areas.*⁵⁰

Commitment Seven. *We will implement, monitor, and follow-up this Plan of Action at all levels in cooperation with the international community.*⁵¹

Each of these commitments was accompanied by an explanation of the basis for action on the commitment and specific objectives and actions to be pursued to meet the commitment. Altogether, the Summit Plan of Action contained 27 objectives and 181 actions. The plan is highly diverse and comprehensive in the actions it calls for, but as a whole, it is consistent with the U.S. Position Paper. Specifically, it stresses (1) the primacy of self-reliance and local responsibility for food security,⁵² (2) the importance of broad social, economic, and political reform,⁵³ (3) the need to build socially, economically, and environmentally sustainable food systems in developing countries,⁵⁴ (4) the importance of viable markets and freer trade in food,⁵⁵ and (5) the limitations of food aid as a contributor to long-term food security.⁵⁶

The Summit Plan of Action also stresses implementation and followup as one of its core commitments. This included commitments to review and revise, as appropriate, national food security plans⁵⁷ and to:

*[e]stablish or improve national mechanisms to set priorities, develop, implement and monitor the components of action for food security within designated time frames, based on national and local needs, and provide the necessary resources for their functioning.*⁵⁸

In addition to commitments for national-level followup, the Summit Plan of Action included provisions for nations to report progress on their food security undertakings to FAO.⁵⁹

The United States joined in the consensus adoption of the summit commitments.⁶⁰

The NGO forum made a brief presentation to the summit and said that achieving food security would be possible with a decentralized model emphasizing family farms, more sustainable agricultural practices, and an international law guaranteeing the “right to food, ensuring that food sovereignty takes precedence over macro-economic policies and trade liberalization.”⁶¹ The NGO statement was consistent with summit documents on the importance of political and economic rights, national self-reliance, and improving agricultural sustainability, but it sharply challenged the status quo in agriculture and the Summit Plan of Action’s emphasis on trade liberalization. The statement said that the globalization of the world economy, coupled with the “lack of accountabil-

ity of transnational corporations and spreading patterns of overconsumption,” had increased world poverty. It also said:

*Industrialized agriculture, intensive animal husbandry methods, and overfishing are destroying traditional farming, poisoning the planet and all living beings. Subsidized exports, artificially low prices, constant dumping, and even some food aid programmes are increasing food insecurity and making people dependent on food they are unable to produce. The depletion of global grain stocks has increased market instability, to the detriment of small producers.*⁶²

Development of the U.S. Action Plan on Food Security

Soon after the World Food Summit in November 1996, IWG met to plan U.S. followup on the summit commitments. The promptness of this meeting, held on December 10, 1996, indicated the high interest and energy level for the food security effort immediately following the summit. USDA Secretary Glickman, leader of the U.S. delegation to the summit, had said in his remarks to summit participants, “May we return home and face our common enemy [world hunger] with the same conviction with which we condemn it today.”

Undersecretary Wirth also emphasized the importance of followup. In a speech three months after the summit, he endorsed the outcome as providing “a rich template that sets the agenda for food security well into the future,” but added:

*[T]he importance of a summit is not really the meeting itself. It is the follow-up that is critical. Thus, the United States’ participation in the World Food Summit will be measured ultimately by what we do as a result.*⁶³

At the December 10 meeting of IWG, there was unanimous agreement among participants that “follow up is critical to carrying out the U.S. commitment to enhance global food security.”⁶⁴ IWG then made several decisions regarding followup:

- 1 IWG would continue to function as the policy oversight body on U.S. government food security matters.
- 2 The global goal of reducing hunger by half was adopted as a goal for the United States as well.
- 3 A draft long-term action plan would be developed, with “active” nongovernmental participation, addressing both international and domestic food security; the Department of State was designated to coordinate the international portions.
- 4 A public advisory committee on food security would be established, including representation from NGOs that contribute to food security.
- 5 USDA would continue to serve as the secretariat of the interagency process on summit followup.

When USDA Undersecretary Moos, who had played a central role in summit preparations at USDA and as cochair of IWG, left office on December 31, 1996, he recommended that Secretary Glickman establish a position of national coordinator for food security to continue USDA's interagency leadership role on food security in general, and on the U.S. government's food security action plan specifically. Moos recommended that the position be placed in the office of the secretary or deputy secretary of USDA to demonstrate high-level commitment to the food security effort and that the position be filled by Buzz Guroff, the FAS official who had driven staff-level preparation in his role as the U.S. national secretary for the summit. The secretary established the national coordinator position and appointed Guroff but placed the position within the International Cooperation and Development unit of FAS.

With the departure of Undersecretary Moos, Dallas Smith became acting undersecretary for Farm and Foreign Agricultural Services and in that capacity was cochair of IWG until August 1997, when FAS Administrator Schumacher was confirmed by the Senate as undersecretary and took over as USDA's IWG cochair.

To carry out the Department of State's role in coordinating the international portion of the U.S. Action Plan, Undersecretary Wirth established the position of special representative for food security in the Department of State and named Priscilla Clapp, a foreign service officer, to fill it.⁶⁵

The IWG decision to establish a public food security advisory committee was based on concerns expressed by NGOs and other private-sector groups that they should be more involved in the government's food security deliberations and in followup on the World Food Summit, coupled with the need to satisfy the Federal Advisory Committee Act.⁶⁶ To the NGOs, it appeared that most of the decisions had already been made before they were consulted in public forums and briefings. Moreover, these informal consultations could not be used to reach consensus on policy between the government and NGOs because of legal issues regarding the manner in which the government can seek input and advice from private parties.⁶⁷ The sense was that a formal advisory committee would provide the basis for a better partnership between the government and civil society.

Following the decision in December 1996 to form such a committee, administrative issues—including whether to establish it as a new, freestanding advisory committee or under the auspices of an existing committee—delayed the appointment of members and the committee's first meeting. The Food Security Advisory Committee (FSAC) was established in June 1997 as a subcommittee of the USAID Board for International Food and Agricultural Development. Its charge was to provide input to the development of the action plan, participate in implementation, and conduct outreach to maximize participation by NGOs in developing and implementing the plan.⁶⁸ The members were appointed in January 1998 and included a cross-section of more than two dozen hunger NGOs and advocacy groups, service organizations, farm organizations, individual farmers, food processors, technology providers, and academic experts. It was cochaired by Professor G. Edward Schuh of the University of Minnesota and Christine Vladimiroff of Second Harvest.⁶⁹ See Appendix E for the list of members.

FSAC held its first meeting on February 11, 1998. The members served without compensation from the government, and there was no government funding for travel. Nevertheless, as discussed further below, the committee took its charge seriously and worked diligently and cooperatively to provide meaningful input to the government officials working on the U.S. followup to the World Food Summit.

In October 1997, IWG cleared and released to the public a discussion paper on the international topics that the interagency staff group thought should be considered in developing an action plan.⁷⁰ A public workshop was held on November 5, 1997, and the ideas were distilled into a framework paper containing the major actions that the interagency staff group recommended be included in the plan. These proposed actions were prepared, however, under a key constraint, stipulated by the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) in the executive office of the president: The plan could not involve the commitment of new resources to the food security effort, beyond what the agencies already had in their budgets.⁷¹ This constraint reflected the fact that the IWG process for developing the food security action plan was not part of the normal budgetary and program development processes of the agencies. The commitment of new resources would require that proposals come through that process and, with the concurrence of OMB, be included in the president's budget. As of December 1997, when OMB was finalizing the president's budget proposal for fiscal year 1999, the summit goal and the commitments made at the summit in November 1996 had not been made part of the president's budget process.

The national food security coordinator confronted this reality when he sought guidance from IWG on the framework paper he and the interagency staff group had prepared on the international portion of the action plan. In a decision memorandum dated December 16, 1997, he noted that the proposed actions had been "recast to avoid any immediate budgetary implications," but that they "represent longer term directions for U.S. policy and programs and will entail budget considerations in due course."⁷²

ing the lead, as appropriate,” and it identified milestones for implementing the plan. In 1999, according to the FAS document, the elements of the action plan were to be “integrated into U.S. government agency strategic, budget, and annual performance plans.” In 2000, the government would implement a Millennium Food Security Initiative, and in 2001, it would issue a report documenting progress.

Despite this apparent clarity about how the U.S. Action Plan process would proceed, issues continued to be debated. In preparation for a May 1998 meeting, the national food security coordinator prepared a decision memorandum for the IWG cochair posing “issues that need to be addressed before staff can proceed with developing a specific [Millennium Initiative] proposal.”⁷⁷ These included the fundamental questions of “what priority the U.S. government place[s] on food security relative to other programs,” whether increased food security funding would be sought for fiscal year 2000 through a specific presidential initiative, and the programmatic elements that should be addressed in the proposed Millennium Initiative.

At the same time, within USAID, the assistant administrator for policy and program coordination, Tom Fox, was very candidly posing similar, fundamental questions concerning administration priorities and how to deal with practical budget trade-offs.⁷⁸ Based on estimates that the world’s poor population was growing by 3% a year, he observed that achieving the summit goal of cutting the number of undernourished people in half (to 400 million) by 2015 would require raising 1 billion people out of poverty. He expressed concern that the action plan and Millennium Initiative processes were producing proposals that would consume significant USAID and “150 account” (foreign aid) resources but were not “strategically linked” to the hunger reduction target. “Assuming a desire to undertake a serious commitment to improving food security in the world,” he wrote, a critical “first initiative” would be to make food security an explicit priority in the U.S. Strategic Plan for International Affairs and to provide clear guidance to all U.S. agencies operating in a specific country about the priority to be given food security in relation to other U.S. priorities in that country. The next step would be to develop a “donor-coordinated action plan which identifies target countries, programs, and subtargets which will permit the lifting of some 1 billion people from poverty by the year 2015” and clearly identifies the roles of various donor countries and international organizations. Once the U.S. role in the international effort had been determined, the government “would need to assign responsibility across agencies to assure that the response is comprehensive and coordinated, with various agencies held accountable for results based on sub-targets by country and region.” Based on the relative priority attached to food security in relation to other U.S. activities and interests, such as military sales, trade, security, infectious diseases, sustainable development, and poverty alleviation, agency budgets would have to be revised to carry out the U.S. food security role. Such an effort, he noted, would raise “significant issues” for USAID regarding its strategic priorities, targeting of countries for assistance efforts, and priority of efforts within countries.

As these issues were being discussed within IWG and the agencies, FSAC was reviewing and preparing comments on the draft action plan. At its first meeting on February 11, 1998, the committee decided to organize itself into ten subgroups to develop comments on various components of the draft action plan.⁷⁹ FSAC met again on June 10, 1998, to discuss its comments. That afternoon, the FSAC cochair, G. Edward Schuh and Christine Vladimiroff, presented the FSAC comments to IWG. FSAC advised IWG that the action plan should be strengthened in several areas, such as the role of women and children in achieving food security, the need to address poverty and access to food

rather than availability of food as the key to food security, investment in human capital and rural development, the role of trade in food security, and the contribution of research to food security.⁸⁰

The FSAC cochairs also noted that the draft “lacks a sense of priority,” which they thought necessary “to mobilize political support and action,” and a “conceptual framework that would help tie its various parts together” and provide the basis for setting priorities.⁸¹ On resources, the FSAC cochairs pointed out that the plan was “almost silent on the need for serious investments . . . in human capital, rural infrastructure, and so forth” and would be “seriously lacking in credibility with respect to ‘halving hunger’ if it does not talk about this topic.”⁸² Finally, the cochairs expressed “their disappointment that not one of the cochairs of [IWG] was present to receive the report of the Advisory Committee.”⁸³

On October 26, 1998, FSAC met and voted to endorse the U.S. Action Plan on Food Security, with the stipulation that issues raised during its meeting be addressed.⁸⁴ At this meeting, FSAC also expressed concern that the followup process was losing momentum and that “mobilization of both political and public opinion will be needed if we are to achieve our World Food Summit goal and make the Action Plan a reality.”⁸⁵ On October 27, 1998, the cochairs of FSAC and IWG met to discuss plans for completing the action plan, with the goal of releasing it in early 1999.

The U.S. Action Plan on Food Security was released on March 26, 1999, at a ceremony attended by the FSAC and IWG cochairs, the secretary of Agriculture, and other public and private sector dignitaries, including Norman Borlaug and FAO Director General Diouf.

The U.S. Action Plan

The U.S. Action Plan on Food Security is consistent in tone and content with the U.S. Position Paper prepared in advance of the summit, the Rome Declaration itself, and the Summit Plan of Action.⁸⁶ The U.S. Action Plan opens with strong words about the importance of food security:

*Hunger amidst plenty is a profound contradiction of our age. Food security is fundamental to individual human dignity, growth, and survival. We all pay for widespread hunger and malnutrition through sacrificed human potential, lost economic opportunity, social tension, violence, and war. Global food security is essential to world peace and national security.*⁸⁷

The body of the plan consists of seven chapters devoted to the priority strategies and actions to achieve food security:

Chapter 1: Economic Security and Policy Environment. “Encourage a policy environment at home and abroad that enables individuals, households, communities, and nations to attain economic and food security.”⁸⁸

Chapter 2: Trade and Investment. “Promote continued trade and investment liberalization to benefit all countries.”

Chapter 3: Research and Education. “Strengthen food security research and educational capacity to expand the productivity and nutritional impact of agriculture and aquaculture and ensure that a broad range of appropriate information and technology reaches producers and consumers.”

Chapter 4: Sustainable Food Systems and the Environment. “Integrate environmental concerns into food security efforts to ensure sustainability.”

Chapter 5: Food Security Safety Net. “Improve and, when possible, extend the food and nutrition assistance net, especially those programs targeting vulnerable women and children.”

Chapter 6: Information and Mapping. “Enhance the U.S. ability to identify food-insecure individuals and populations to make better use of food assistance programs and to provide an improved decision making tool for local authorities in the United States and for governments and communities in developing countries.”

Chapter 7: Food and Water Safety. “Assure that food and water production and distribution systems meet public health safety standards as a part of ensuring food security for U.S. and international consumers.”

The seven broad strategies are accompanied by 69 action items targeted at international food security. The action items are reproduced verbatim in Appendix G. Some are very specific, such as prepositioning commodities in the United States for overseas emergencies⁸⁹ and developing better information systems for mapping food insecurity.⁹⁰ Many are broad, encompassing within a single action item multiple activities, such as implementing the African Food Security Initiative⁹¹ and working in conjunction with the 33 other democracies in the Western Hemisphere to eradicate poverty in the region.⁹² Altogether, the 69 action items envision a broad and large-scale U.S. effort to achieve food security in developing countries.

The U.S. Action Plan was labeled a joint effort of IWG and FSAC. As discussed above, FSAC endorsed the plan, albeit with conditions. People involved with FSAC believe that the plan and the process by which it was developed have made a positive contribution to the debate about food security and the U.S. role in achieving it internationally.⁹³ Suggestions made by FSAC during the development of the plan appear to have been adopted in many cases,⁹⁴ and the views of FSAC members on sensitive policy and political issues affecting food security were also incorporated, even when they were in conflict with U.S. government policy.⁹⁵

In several respects, however, the concerns and comments expressed by FSAC during its review of the draft action plan were not fully addressed in the final version. One such concern was that the draft plan “lacks a sense of priority.” The term “priority” is used throughout the final plan, but it is difficult to determine what the priorities are among the 69 action items. In the executive summary, all seven strategies addressed in the seven chapters of the plan are labeled in the plan as “priority strategies.” In the introduction to the plan, the “priority areas” for the next five years are narrowed to five of the seven (with Sustainable Food Systems and the Environment, and Food and Water Safety excluded).⁹⁶ Within those five chapters, however, ten themes or broad initiatives are labeled as “priorities,” and there is no explicit or implicit guidance on the priorities among the 53 associated action items.

The U.S. Action Plan is also silent on the need for serious investment in human capital, rural infrastructure, and other prerequisites for food security, despite the advice of the FSAC cochairs that the plan would be “seriously lacking in credibility” for achieving the hunger reduction goal if it did not address this need. As noted above, the plan was prepared outside the normal budget process and with a constraint, stipulated by OMB, that it not commit additional resources to the food security effort. The plan thus contains no resource commitments. The only discussion of budgets in the body

of the plan is a brief recitation of the decline in agricultural development assistance and P.L. 83-480 food aid from 1992 to 1997, from \$594 million for agriculture aid and \$1.62 billion for food assistance in 1992, to \$245 million and \$1.1 billion, respectively, in 1997.⁹⁷

The U.S. Action Plan contains one paragraph on implementation, contemplating an ongoing role for IWG and FSAC:

*The U.S. government will maintain the Interagency Working Group on Food Security as the focal point within the Executive Branch for its continuing response to the World Food Summit, including identifying issues for the Executive Branch to address in concert with Congress. The Food Security Advisory Committee will also continue to oversee implementation of the Plan and to reflect a broad range of viewpoints and experience. But this effort will require more than government and advisory committee action. To accomplish many of the initiatives and activities described in this plan will require participation and commitment from all sectors of society. There is a vital role for each person, from all areas of American society, in the effort to achieve lasting food security.*⁹⁸

At about the same time the government issued its action plan, the General Accounting Office (GAO) issued a report documenting the summit outcome and factors that could affect progress toward meeting the summit goals, including the difficulty of implementing trade reforms in a way that addresses developing country concerns and achieving the necessary increases in agricultural production.⁹⁹ The GAO report also described the actions needed to monitor progress in implementing the Summit Plan of Action and achieving the summit goal.

Implementation of the U.S. Action Plan

The next meeting of IWG following the March 1999 issuance of the U.S. Action Plan was on October 6, 1999.¹⁰⁰ One of the agenda items was a proposal to develop an implementation plan for the U.S. Action Plan. The national food security coordinator in FAS proposed that each agency represented on IWG prepare its own implementation plan, with initial drafts due to the coordinator by February 1, 2000.¹⁰¹ These would then be melded into a government-wide plan that “should be a realistic and detailed assessment of what specific actions will be required within each agency to accomplish the goals set out in the U.S. Action Plan.” The agency plans were to identify agency priorities, timeframes for completing projects, and intermediate goals against which progress could be measured. The implementation proposal also called for annual reviews to measure and report progress.

At the October 6 meeting, IWG voted to adopt the proposal to prepare an implementation plan, with the provision that an extension of the due date for agency plans be considered. USAID requested more time because of competing priorities, and the OMB representative suggested that submission of the draft agency plans be delayed until mid-February so that the agencies’ plans could reflect the president’s new budget. On December 14, 1999, the national food security coordinator set a February 1 due date for the draft agency action plans. No such plans were submitted, however, by USDA, USAID, the Department of State, or most other IWG members.¹⁰² No government-wide imple-

mentation plan was developed, and the subject of implementation plans did not appear on the agenda of the next IWG meeting.¹⁰³

Notwithstanding the lack of an implementation plan, the U.S. government was obligated to report to FAO on its progress in implementing the Summit Plan of Action.¹⁰⁴ FAO Director General Diouf had called for the submission of national reports concerning progress on selected elements of the plan by December 31, 1999.¹⁰⁵ Under the direction of the national food security coordinator, staff in the FAS International Cooperation and Development program coordinated the development of a progress report that addressed the seven strategic elements of the U.S. Action Plan. The Progress Report was completed and released in November 2000.¹⁰⁶

Though organized generally around the seven elements of the plan, the Progress Report did not link its reports of U.S. food security activities to the specific action items. This reflects the fact that there was no system within the U.S. government to monitor and report progress on the specific action items as such. The information in the report was instead compiled by FAS on an ad hoc basis for the purpose of producing the report, and FAS staff depended on the information provided by the more than 20 agencies involved. Thus, as acknowledged in the report itself, the information presented was “an overview of U.S. activities pertinent to food security,” which was “drawn from agency submissions and publicly available sources.”¹⁰⁷ It was “intended to be representative, not exhaustive.”

The Progress Report provides a good compilation and general description of many of the on-going activities of the U.S. government that relate directly or indirectly to food security. Most of these activities can be linked only at a general level to the specific items in the U.S. Action Plan, however, and some are not mentioned in the plan at all. As a general matter, the report lacks quantitative information or other specific information that would be necessary to evaluate U.S. progress on food security since the World Food Summit or since adoption of the plan.

Importantly, the Progress Report acknowledged that “we are not on track to meet the World Food Summit and *U.S. Action Plan* targets of halving food insecurity,” and that “there is a large gap remaining in resources required to reach the targets.”¹⁰⁸ The report candidly acknowledged:

*While the U.S. Action Plan on Food Security sets laudable goals, it is up against daunting trends of declining foreign aid, and it encompasses no significant new initiatives or resources either internationally or domestically. We will not meet our food security goals without a substantial increase in resources to build agricultural productivity and rural income overseas. . . . The goal of reducing hunger is attainable both at home and abroad. What is needed is leadership, vision, and commitment by governments and civil society.*¹⁰⁹

The report noted that many of the resources needed to achieve food security in other countries would have to come from private trade and investment, but said:

*[I]n parts of the world where food insecurity is most rampant, such as Africa, investments must come in part from public resources for: supporting agriculture and rural development; helping governments improve policies; training policymakers and researchers; developing new technologies; preserving the environment; sustaining targeted food interventions; supporting civil society initiatives; and facilitating a better private sector environment.*¹¹⁰

Indicators of Progress on Implementation

It is evident from an analysis of the U.S. Action Plan and its implementation that the plan has not been seen or used by IWG as a management tool for ensuring that the United States is meeting its hunger reduction commitments. There are two other ways, however, in which the summit goals might be reflected in the government's management of its food security-related activities. One is by incorporating food security into the strategic plans of the individual agencies in a way that takes account of the summit commitments. The other is by managing or changing current programs in ways that reflect and are designed to achieve the goals. These will be examined in turn.

Agency Strategic Plans

The Government Performance and Results Act of 1993 requires federal agencies to develop strategic plans as a tool for clearly defining their missions and goals, how they will achieve their goals, and how their performance can be measured.¹¹¹ The strategic plans provide insight into how the agencies perceive their roles, what they consider most important, and what they want (and expect) to be held accountable for achieving. We have reviewed the strategic plans of the three IWG cochair agencies—Department of State, USAID, and USDA—to determine how they address food security and the hunger reduction goal.

Department of State. The Department of State's strategic plan does not mention food security or the World Food Summit hunger reduction goal.¹¹² It identifies seven "U.S. national interests"¹¹³ and 16 "strategic goals," none of which expressly involve the problem of global hunger. The only indirect reference is under the economic prosperity national interest and the strategic goal to "[p]romote broad-based growth in developing and transitional economies to raise standards of living, reduce poverty and lessen disparities of wealth within and among countries."¹¹⁴ As one of five sets of indicators of performance in achieving this goal, the plan includes "[q]uality of life (health, *nutrition*, education, housing, incomes, and workplace conditions)" (italics added).¹¹⁵ There is no other reference in any of the Department of State's 16 strategic goals to reducing undernourishment or food insecurity or to achieving the specific hunger reduction goal agreed to by the United States at the World Food Summit.

USAID. The USAID strategic plan includes several references to food security. The USAID plan is linked to the State strategic plan through the seven categories of "national interests" identified by the Department of State, which USAID adopts.¹¹⁶ Under the economic prosperity national interest, USAID adopts as a goal "[b]road-based economic growth and agricultural development encouraged," and one specific objective to be achieved in pursuit of this goal is expressed as "[m]ore rapid and enhanced agricultural development and *food security* encouraged" (italics added).¹¹⁷ However, the performance benchmarks and indicators adopted by USAID under this goal do not mention hunger reduction or any specific hunger reduction achievement as a benchmark or indicator of performance in achieving the goal of economic growth and agricultural development.¹¹⁸

None of the other USAID goals in its strategic plan expressly include hunger reduction or improved food security as an objective, and neither the summit goal nor the U.S. Action Plan is mentioned.

USDA and FAS. The USDA strategic plan¹¹⁹ addresses food security, as does the strategic plan for the Foreign Agricultural Service within USDA.¹²⁰ USDA includes as one element of its mission statement “working to reduce hunger in America and throughout the world.”¹²¹ The second of the agency’s five strategic goals is to “[p]romote health by providing access to safe, affordable, and nutritious food,” and one of the four objectives under this goal is to “[r]educer hunger and malnutrition around the world.”¹²² Under this objective, the USDA strategic plan cites the World Food Summit commitment and the U.S. Action Plan and sets as a “key outcome measure” making a “significant contribution” to reducing world hunger and malnutrition, with a target of reducing the number of hungry people in the world by 100 million by 2005.¹²³

FAS has the lead within USDA for international food security. Its strategic plan addresses the issue in more detail than the departmental plan and provides more context concerning the link between food security and the broader FAS mission. In fact, its mission statement reads, “FAS serves U.S. agriculture’s international interests by expanding export opportunities for U.S. agricultural, fish, and forest products and promoting world food security.”¹²⁴ FAS says it has two goals, one of which is to “[p]romote world food security.” The FAS strategic plan cites the U.S. commitment to the summit goal and adopts the USDA target of reducing the number of “food insecure” by 100 million by 2005. FAS says it will contribute to achieving this goal through the food aid programs it administers (P.L. 480, Title I, and Food for Progress), and by helping food-insecure countries develop “the economic, political, and institutional infrastructure that developing countries require to become secure and financially unassisted U.S. agricultural export markets.” Thus, in the FAS Strategic Plan, food security efforts are directly linked to the interest of U.S. agriculture in expanding export markets.

Impact on Current Programs

To see whether the commitments made by the U.S. government at the World Food Summit and in the U.S. Action Plan are reflected in the government’s management of its food security-related programs, we have examined selected food security programs. Have the programs proceeded or changed in ways that seem compatible with the summit goal and the U.S. Action Plan?

In making this analysis, we have focused on five programs: the African Food Security Initiative; implementation of the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act; USAID’s African agricultural development assistance program; the U.S. contribution to international agricultural research through the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR); and the USDA and USAID food aid programs. These programs were selected because they are among the U.S. food security-related programs that deal most directly with the problem of hunger and chronic food insecurity. We focus on Africa-related initiatives because the African food security problem is generally considered the most severe in the world, and Africa has been a focal point for U.S. policy initiatives since the summit in 1996 and a trip there by President Clinton in 1998.

African Food Security Initiative

The African Food Security Initiative (AFSI) was announced as a presidential initiative by President Clinton during a trip to Africa in March 1998.¹²⁵ It was part of “a series of initiatives designed to underscore the new U.S.-African partnerships” that are intended to improve education, nutrition, and health in Africa. AFSI is overseen jointly by USAID’s Office of Sustainable Development in the Africa Bureau and its Africa missions. The initiative’s purpose is to reduce childhood malnutrition and improve rural incomes, thereby promoting food security, through (1) increased agricultural production; (2) improved market efficiency and access to agricultural goods; and (3) increased agricultural trade and investment. A commitment to implement AFSI was included twice as an action item in the U.S. Action Plan.¹²⁶

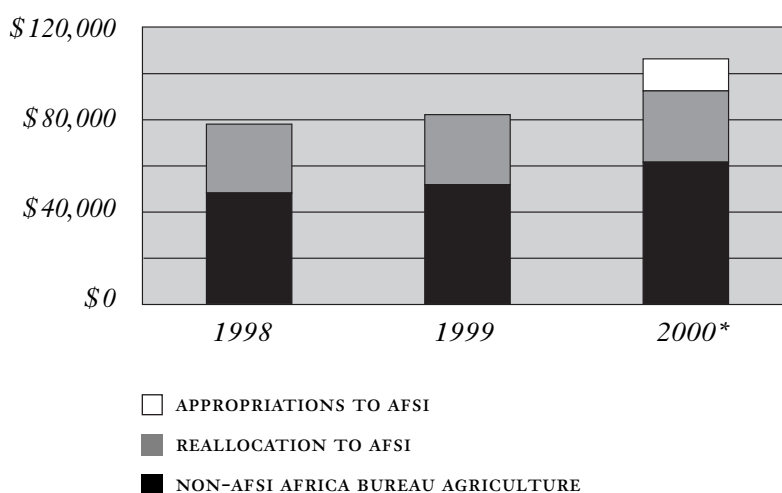
AFSI was launched without new resources. In 1998 and 1999, USAID allocated \$30 million and \$31 million of existing African agricultural development assistance resources to the new initiative. Publicly available records do not disclose the activities from which funding was shifted in 1998 and 1999 to fund AFSI. Although total resources available to USAID’s Africa Bureau for agricultural development assistance were actually less in 1998 (\$77 million) than in 1997 (\$80 million) and rose only slightly in 1999 (\$82 million),¹²⁷ agricultural assistance to the eight AFSI pilot countries nevertheless increased by \$10 million and \$12 million in 1998 and 1999, respectively, compared with 1997.¹²⁸ This reflects a serious effort by USAID to carry out the spirit of AFSI, even without additional resources, but it also meant, as USAID cautioned in a report to Congress, that “[t]o expand AFSI without an overall expansion in the 150 Account would reduce other programs that are of critical help to the poor, in particular education, better governance, and economic reform programs.”¹²⁹

In 2000, USAID received an additional appropriation of \$14 million for the program, bringing the funding level to \$45 million to support an additional four countries (Figure 1).¹³⁰

Figure 1

African Food Security Initiative Funding Sources

*Projected figure for Africa Bureau agriculture obligations.



Sources: *Implementation Report on the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act. 1999. USAID; Famine Prevention and Freedom From Hunger: Title XII Report to Congress FY 1999. 2000. USAID; A Millennium Free from Hunger: U.S. National Progress Report on Implementation of the U.S. Action Plan on Food Security and World Food Summit Commitments. 2000.*

Africa: Seeds of Hope Act of 1998

The Africa: Seeds of Hope Act was enacted on November 13, 1998.¹³¹ It was an outgrowth of the African Food Security Initiative and broad support from NGOs for legislation to address hunger in Africa by promoting more productive and sustainable agriculture and rural development.¹³² The act contains extensive findings on the problem of hunger in Africa and the potential for addressing the problem by increasing agricultural productivity and expanding private investment and trade.¹³³ The findings refer to the World Food Summit goal of reducing hunger by half by 2015. The act states, “it is the policy of the United States” to support sub-Saharan African governments and other public and private institutions “to help ensure the availability of basic nutrition and economic opportunities for individuals in sub-Saharan Africa, through sustainable agriculture and rural development.”¹³⁴

The Africa: Seeds of Hope Act contained no authorization of appropriations. It did, however, require that USAID submit a report to Congress six months after enactment on how the agency planned to implement it.¹³⁵ The U.S. Action Plan on the summit goal included its implementation as an action item.¹³⁶

The act contains five provisions that involve assistance for sub-Saharan Africa. These are summarized below with a brief note on the implementation status of the provisions.

Section 101. *Africa Food Security Initiative.* Provides guidance to USAID in carrying out AFSI that generally confirms the direction of the program; includes a “Sense of the Congress” provision that says “if there is an increase in funding” for USAID’s sub-Saharan programs, USAID “should proportionately increase resources to the Africa Food Security Initiative” or comparable or successor programs. *Implementation:* See AFSI discussion, above.

Section 102. *Microenterprise Assistance.* Provides that USAID “shall, to the extent practicable” use microcredit to improve the productivity of small-scale, sub-Saharan farmers and develop a plan to coordinate microcredit activities with other governments and institutions. *Implementation:* Prior to the act, USAID excluded projects directed at assisting crop production from its microenterprise program but pledged following enactment “to identify ways to support financial institutions offering microcredit for small-scale agricultural production in Africa.”¹³⁷ As of its most recent revision in May 2001, the USAID microenterprise policy directive continued to exclude crop production from its definition of microenterprise,¹³⁸ and thus direct lending to farmers to increase productivity is precluded. According to USAID, farmers are assisted indirectly, however, by lending for microenterprise activities to smallholder households.¹³⁹

Section 103. *Support for Producer-Owned Cooperative Marketing Associations.* Authorizes USAID to use foreign assistance programs to support farmer-owned cooperative marketing associations in sub-Saharan Africa for the purpose of bettering their access to inputs, credit, expertise, and markets. *Implementation:* Funding for support of farmer-owned cooperatives in Africa increased to \$41 million in 1999 from \$32 million in 1998 (Figure 2).

Section 104. *Agricultural and Rural Development Activities of the Overseas Private Investment Corporation (OPIC).* Encourages OPIC to use its existing funds to invest in ways that will improve the capacity of small-scale farmers and entrepreneurs in sub-Saharan Africa and promote agricultural and rural development. *Implementation:* OPIC investments in African agricultural projects have fluctuated widely, ranging from zero in 1998, to \$123 million in 1999, and back to zero in 2000.¹⁴⁰

In 1999 and 2000 combined, OPIC investment in African agriculture was 19% of total OPIC African investment. In the years 1994–1998, preceding enactment of the act, the OPIC investment in African agriculture was 23% of total OPIC African investment (Figure 3).

Section 105. *Agricultural Research and Extension Activities.* Directs USAID and the USDA Cooperative State Research, Education, and Extension Service to develop a comprehensive plan to coordinate the research and extension activities of U.S. land grant universities with international agricultural research centers and national agricultural research and extension centers in sub-Saharan Africa. *Implementation:* The plan has been developed as required but reportedly not implemented because of a lack of funding.¹⁴¹

Implementation of the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act is a work-in-progress and depends for its success on future budget and policy decisions. Its supporters see it, however, as, an important step in validating the importance of agriculture to both food security and economic development in sub-Saharan Africa.¹⁴² It provides a foundation on which future efforts focused on this critical region could be built.

Agricultural Development Assistance in Africa

Trends in total agricultural development assistance administered by USAID, globally and in Africa, provide important context for understanding the status of efforts to implement AFSI and the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act. Because agricultural development in Africa is such an important tool for achieving the hunger reduction goal, these trends are also a barometer of the extent to which the summit commitments are reflected in relevant program budgets. The overall trend in USAID agricultural development assistance budgets is down since the 1980s, with funding for Africa having stabilized since 1996 and grown slightly in 2000.

In 1985, total USAID funding for agriculture was more than \$1.2 billion.¹⁴³ In 2000, it was about \$300 million, with a corresponding decline in USAID agriculture staffing levels from more than 250 agricultural specialists in 1985 to fewer than 50 in 2000. USAID funding for African agriculture has generally mirrored this downward trend. In 1994, the Africa Bureau had almost \$125 million for agricultural projects. This declined to a low of \$77 million in 1998. The figure for 2000 was projected to be about \$92 million (Figure 4).¹⁴⁴

International Agricultural Research

The Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research is a group of more than 50 countries, international organizations, and foundations that support a network of 16 agricultural research institutes worldwide.¹⁴⁵ The mission of the “CG system,” as it is often called, is to develop improved crop varieties and other innovations in agriculture and forestry to benefit developing countries. It is a vital component of the global effort to achieve food security. The United States has long been a donor to the CG system.

Like most foreign development assistance, U.S. contributions to the CG system have declined in recent years, though CG funding has stabilized since 1997. In 1992, the U.S. contribution was \$66 million. It declined steadily until 1996, when it bottomed out at \$30.5 million. It rose in 1997 to \$38.7 million and has been fairly constant since. The 2000 contribution was \$42.1 million¹⁴⁶ (Figure 5).

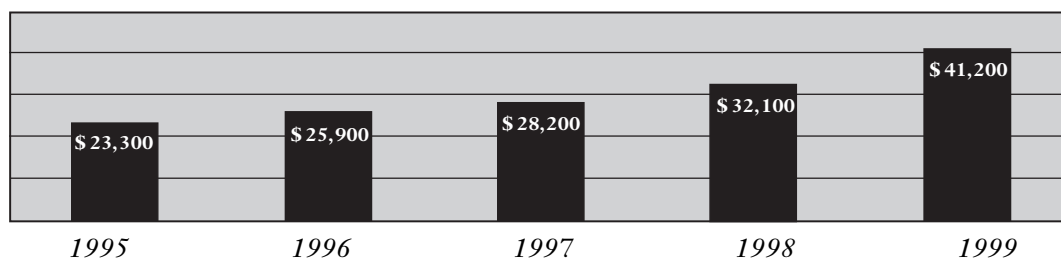


Figure 2

U.S. Funding for Farmer Cooperatives in Sub-Saharan Africa (\$000)

Source: *Implementation Report on the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act. 1999. USAID.*

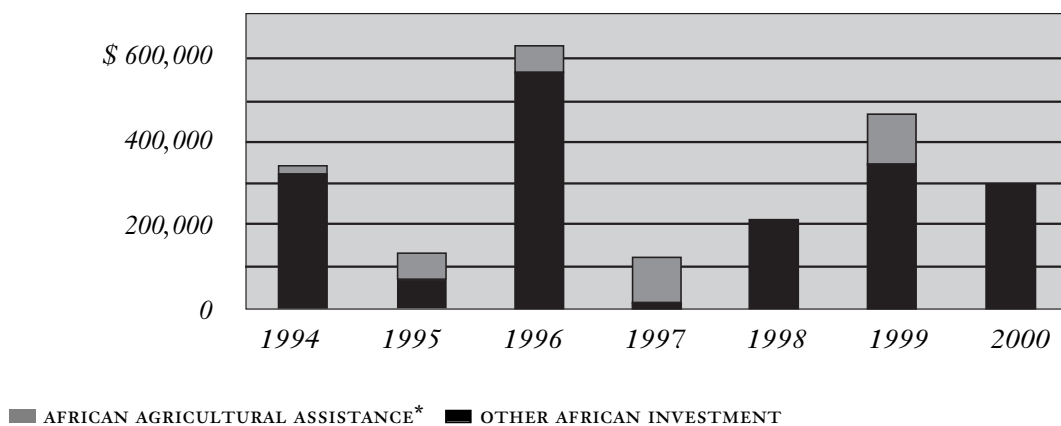


Figure 3

Overseas Private Investment Corporation Investment in Africa (\$000)

*Includes development of road infrastructure, New African Opportunity Fund, and Modern Africa Fund Managers.

Source: Overseas Private Investment Corporation. 1994–2000. Annual Reports.

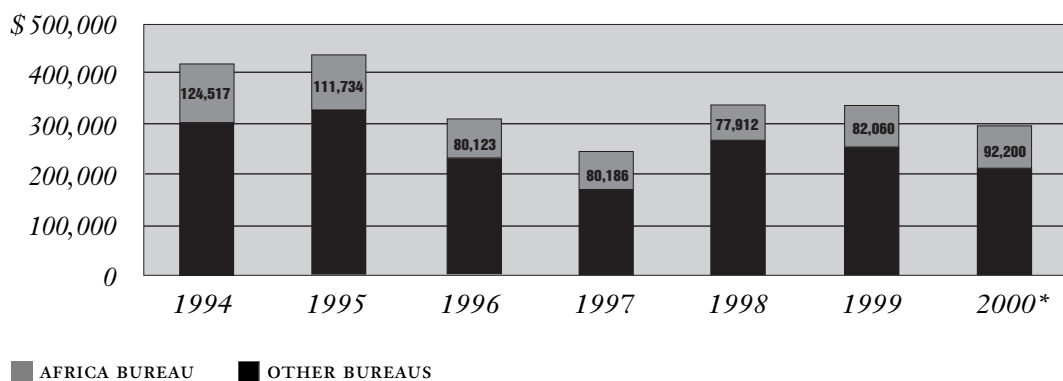


Figure 4

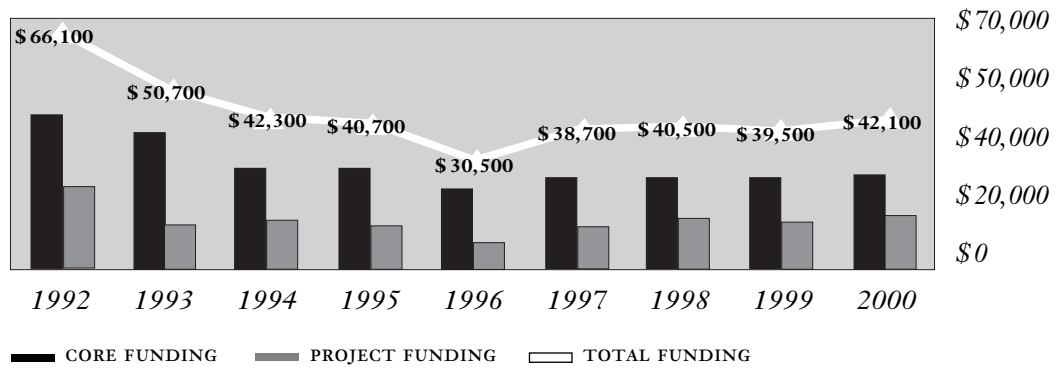
USAID Funding for Agriculture by Bureau (\$000)

*Projected figure for Africa Bureau and other agriculture obligations

Source: *Famine Prevention and Freedom From Hunger: Title XII Report to Congress FY 1999. 2000. USAID.*

Figure 5

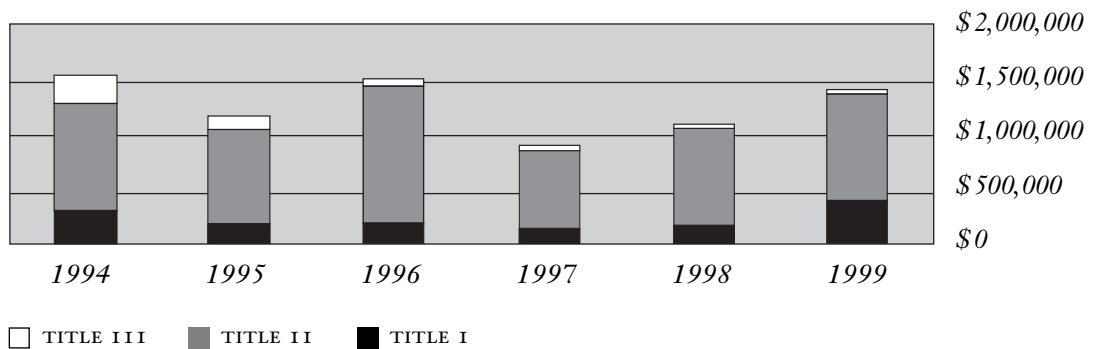
**U.S. Funding
for Consultative
Group on
International
Agriculture
(\$000)**



Sources: *Famine Prevention and Freedom From Hunger: Title XII Report to Congress FY 1992-1997*. 1998. USAID; *Personal communication with USAID Staff*. 2001.

Figure 6

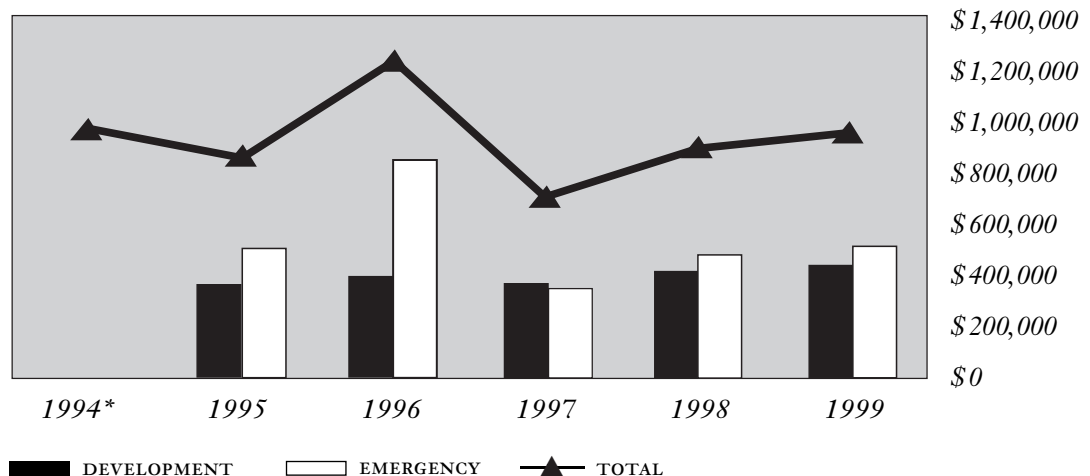
**U.S. Food Aid
Under P.L. 480
“Food for Peace”
(\$000)**



Sources: *World Food Day Report: The President’s Report to Congress*. 1994. ISTI; *World Food Day Report: The President’s Report to Congress*. 1995. ISTI; *USAID Annual Food Assistance Report*. 1996. November 1996. USAID; *U.S. International Food Assistance Report 1997*. 1998. USAID; *U.S. International Food Assistance Report 1998*. 1999. USAID; *U.S. International Food Assistance Report 1999*. 2000. USAID.

Figure 7

**U.S. Food Aid
Under P.L. 480
Title II Emergency
and Development
(\$000)**



*Development and Emergency not separated out.

Sources: *World Food Day Report: The President’s Report to Congress*. 1994. ISTI; *World Food Day Report: The President’s Report to Congress*. 1995. ISTI; *USAID Annual Food Assistance Report* 1996. November 1996. USAID; *U.S. International Food Assistance Report 1997*. 1998. USAID; *U.S. International Food Assistance Report 1998*. 1999. USAID; *U.S. International Food Assistance Report 1999*. 2000. USAID.

Food Aid

The U.S. government's food aid programs have a long history and are quite complex.¹⁴⁷ They involve multiple statutes and objectives, and administration is divided between USAID and USDA. The primary food aid law was originally enacted in 1954, creating the Food for Peace program. This law, which is commonly known as Public Law 480, was reauthorized and amended by Congress in 1996 with the stated purpose of using food aid more effectively to enhance food security in the developing world.¹⁴⁸ Title I, Trade and Development Assistance, is administered by USDA and provides concessional credit to developing countries to purchase U.S. agricultural commodities with the objective of developing export markets for the United States. Title II, Emergency and Development Assistance, has recently become the largest conduit for U.S. food aid; it is administered by USAID and includes both emergency humanitarian and development uses of food aid. Title III, Food for Development, is also administered by USAID and is intended to foster development of agricultural and food systems through the donation of food aid.

In the context of the overall U.S. food security effort, one of the most striking features of the food aid program is its size in dollars. The total value of U.S. food aid under the P.L. 480 program averaged \$1.25 billion from 1994 to 1999, ranging from \$1.5 billion in 1994 to \$900 million in 1997 (Figure 6).¹⁴⁹ The annual average over this period is about five times current USAID spending on agricultural development assistance worldwide.

From 1995 to 1999, the total allocation of food aid through the P.L. 480 program was \$6 billion, with Title II Emergency and Development Assistance accounting for 77% of the total (or about \$4.6 billion). Of the Title II component, more than half (\$2.7 billion) went to meet emergency and humanitarian food relief needs. The balance was used for development aid, meaning generally that the food was monetized in the recipient country and the resulting resources used to support development projects (Figure 7).¹⁵⁰

Funding for Title III of P.L. 480 has declined steadily over the past six years, from \$240 million in 1994 to \$22 million in 1999; the Bush administration's fiscal year 2002 budget request for Title III is zero.¹⁵¹

Fluctuations in U.S. food aid are due in part to the fluctuations in U.S. agricultural surpluses.¹⁵² A recent, dramatic example of this phenomenon occurred in 1999, when American farmers produced enormous surpluses of corn and wheat. USDA used a provision in one of its enabling acts, Section 416(b) of the Agriculture Act of 1949,¹⁵³ to dispose of these surpluses in the form of food aid. Commodities valued at \$814 million were sent overseas in 1999 under section 416(b), in addition to the \$1.4 billion that was exported under the P.L. 480 program.¹⁵⁴ Decisions about allocation of this aid were made by the Interagency Food Aid Committee, chaired by USDA's Undersecretary August Schumacher. Some of this aid was used to meet emergency and humanitarian food needs spawned by natural disasters and political conflict, while a substantial portion was monetized and used to support agricultural and rural development initiatives in places such as Bangladesh, Indonesia, Pakistan, Yemen, the Balkans, the Dominican Republic, and Nicaragua.¹⁵⁵ The largest recipient of section 416(b) aid in 1999 was Russia, which received 29% of the total. Countries in Africa received less than 5% of the total.¹⁵⁶

The Interagency Food Aid Committee viewed the monetized portion of this aid as a way to fill the gap left by declining USAID and World Bank support for agricultural development assistance, and USDA Secretary Dan Glickman and Undersecretary August Schumacher urged World Bank

President James Wolfensohn to reverse the decline in the bank's support for agricultural and rural development in developing countries.¹⁵⁷

USAID also attempts to use development food aid to promote sustainable food security.¹⁵⁸ This approach to funding development is controversial, however, because of the fluctuation in available aid based on U.S. agricultural economic conditions, the costs involved in getting the commodities to the recipient country, and the efficiency and flexibility advantages of direct monetary assistance.¹⁵⁹ It is beyond the scope of this report to address these issues.

Analysis of the U.S. Response to the World Food Summit

The objective of the 1996 World Food Summit was to mobilize political will and the efforts of both developing and developed countries to reduce hunger. The premise of the summit was that the status quo of 800 million undernourished people was not acceptable and that a new kind of effort—different in focus and intensity—was required to reduce that number. The quantitative hunger reduction goal set at the summit was a tool for marshalling the necessary effort and establishing accountability for success.

The record of U.S. involvement in the summit process reveals a government that took the summit process seriously but has not converted good intentions into meaningful action.

To the credit of a number of individuals in key government positions and private groups, the United States played an important leadership role in preparations for the summit. The result was a sound conceptual framework at the international level for achieving food security, as expressed in the World Food Summit Plan of Action. This is no small achievement. The Summit Plan of Action provides the basis for guiding the future efforts of developing and developed countries, as well as international organizations, toward policies and investments that can provide the basis for long-term food security.

Significant good also has come, within the United States, from the process through which the U.S. Action Plan was developed. The gains include improved dialogue on food security among government agencies and with private sector stakeholders; some elevation of food security as a topic of discussion and an agenda item for USDA and USAID; and general agreement on the broad strategy for achieving food security.¹⁶⁰ Altogether, the U.S. government took the summit process seriously as a process that had to be carefully managed, and important good came from that.

As the leaders of U.S. involvement in the summit recognized at the time, however, converting the goals and plans into meaningful action requires followup of a kind that goes beyond what was necessary to manage the summit process itself. It requires effective, on-going governance to marshal resources, set priorities, and manage programs in ways best calculated to achieve the hunger reduction goal. This basic governance response to the hunger reduction goal has not happened. This conclusion is based on the following observations.

IWG has proven not to be an effective governance mechanism for achieving the summit hunger reduction goal. IWG played a valuable role coordinating the interagency preparations for the sum-

mit and development of the U.S. Action Plan, and it remains a useful forum for discussing issues and seeking consensus. As constituted, however, IWG is not an effective governance mechanism. It has no authority to make binding decisions on policy, priorities, or resource allocation, or to hold operating components of the government accountable for carrying out their food security programs in accordance with the U.S. Action Plan. IWG has met only sporadically—about 14 times since the summit—and it lacks the permanent staff that would be required to direct or coordinate a government-wide effort to achieve the summit goal.

Implementation of the U.S. Action Plan lacks consistent, accountable leadership. There is no senior official in the government whose full-time responsibility and accountability entail implementing the plan and achieving the hunger reduction goal. The three IWG cochairs already have demanding, full-time jobs in their respective agencies; food security and IWG leadership are but two of many duties for these officials. Moreover, the IWG cochairs have been in virtually constant flux. Since its formation in 1996, approximately 15 people have served as IWG cochairs, for an average duration of less than 13 months each. Four officials have served as national food security coordinator at USDA. Two officials have served as the Department of State’s special representative for food security, and that position no longer exists.¹⁶¹ This instability deprives the U.S. food security effort of leadership continuity at the senior level and keeps any individual leader from being accountable for results.

No resource plan or budget commitment for implementing the U.S. Action Plan is in place. Neither IWG nor the agencies responsible for food security-related programs have developed a resource plan for the U.S. government’s contribution to achieving the goal. The U.S. Action Plan is accompanied by a model for estimating the cost of meeting the goal, and FAO has published its own estimates of the costs.¹⁶² There has been, however, no U.S. government estimate of the cost of implementing its plan, and no budget proposals tied specifically to achieving the goal. Primary authority to initiate budget proposals for food security remains lodged with the agencies. The possibility of a “millennium” budget initiative for fiscal year 2000 died for lack of support, and since the summit, there have been only minor increases in USAID and USDA funding for food security-related development assistance programs. Resources available for food aid have fluctuated for reasons unrelated to the goal of cutting hunger in half by 2015.

No formal approach exists for coordinating the overall U.S. effort on food security and ensuring it works to achieve the objectives of the action plan in a focused, integrated way. The plan includes seven priority strategies and 69 action items that together are intended to address the problem of food security internationally and help achieve the hunger reduction goal. USAID, USDA, and the State Department have major roles to play in carrying out these action items, some of which, such as those involving better targeting of food aid to support sustainable development, require a new level of interagency coordination and possible change in established programs. IWG has not attempted to coordinate these efforts and lacks the empowerment and practical capability to do so. There is no entity in the U.S. government responsible on an ongoing, operational basis for ensuring that the many food security-related efforts being undertaken by the agencies are integrated and coordinated to achieve the objectives of the plan.

There is no established mechanism for monitoring progress on the plan’s action items. The Progress Report on the U.S. Action Plan and research for this report make clear that no management information system exists for monitoring progress on the plan’s action items. The information in the

Progress Report was gathered specifically for the report and was not generally tied to the action items. It is thus not possible for government managers or the public to evaluate systematically the progress being made in implementing the plan. This reflects that the plan, as numerous participants and observers have pointed out, is a compilation, or “documentation,” of existing U.S. programs related to food security and not a true guide to action. It is clearly not being used as a management tool to ensure that the United States is working, in the manner the plan says it will, to achieve the goal. The appearance is that the plan was adopted solely to satisfy the U.S. commitment made at the World Food Summit to have such a plan.

The core question posed by the manner in which the U.S. government has managed the summit process and its followup is this: What is the nature of the U.S. government’s commitment to achieving global food security?

At a minimum, there is a glaring gap between the language used to characterize the importance of the food security problem and the way the United States has responded to the World Food Summit and its hunger reduction goal. In the U.S. Position Paper prepared prior to the summit and in the U.S. Action Plan itself, the government declared global food security to be a vital economic and national security interest that had to be “tackled with renewed intensity.” The action plan called global food security “essential to world peace.” Although the United States took the summit process seriously, followup and implementation of the plan are not commensurate with a problem of this importance. It took two and a half years to issue an action plan whose policy framework had been set prior to the summit and that largely describes existing activities. There is no implementation plan or management process for the plan, and there has been no significant resource commitment to the plan.

One possible interpretation of these events is that, despite the public statements, there is a lack of agreement that global food security is an important national security or economic issue for the United States. Indeed, a number of observers and participants in the summit process report that food security was not a high political priority within the previous administration and that the fiscal year 2000 budget initiative did not get off the ground because it lacked political support at high levels within the administration. They also report that senior-level involvement in the issue depended on the personal interest in food security of individual officials and varied as officials cycled through their roles as IWG cochairs.

Another interpretation is that the United States recognizes the importance of the food security problem but is reluctant to tie its efforts too closely to the summit process and goal. The United States has been a leader in providing food aid to food-insecure regions and has its own agricultural development programs and other programs related to food security. These programs serve a multitude of domestic political and foreign policy interests of the United States, and there is a natural tendency for agencies and governments to protect their independence and autonomy. The summit process, on the other hand, emphasizes an international agenda and collective accountability for food security, from which the United States might want to distance itself.

A third interpretation of the current situation is that the United States embraces the hunger reduction goal but is not committed to the action plan as a tool for achieving it. This may be the most easily arrived at interpretation of the three. There is wide agreement that the seven strategic priorities in the plan are important to achieving food security. As written, however, the 69 action items are highly diverse, often stated in very general terms, and lacking in any internal prioritization. It is

thus difficult to embrace the document as a whole as a true plan of action, and in its current form, it is not a useful management tool.

What, then, is the true nature of the U.S. government's commitment to global food security? There is, of course, no simple answer to this question. The words are there, and there are people working hard in programs at USAID and USDA, and in many government-funded private voluntary organizations, to address hunger all over the world. The test of commitment, however, is political and has to do with how a problem ranks in the competition for high-level leadership, management attention, and resources. By this test, food security does not appear to rank high. Food security is not visible on the agenda of the Department of State. Funding for USAID's food and agricultural development assistance programs has been in long-term decline and has not increased significantly since the World Food Summit. And food aid, the largest resource commitment the United States makes to food security, is driven as much by domestic policy and political concerns as by the goal of reducing hunger.

Finally, what is the nature of the U.S. government's commitment to achieving the specific hunger reduction goal of the World Food Summit? It is, again, hard to answer the question in the abstract. Viewed from the perspective of what has actually happened since the summit, however, it appears so far to have been a commitment without meaningful consequences.

Preparing for the World Food Summit Five Years Later: Questions and Recommendations

In November 2001, the new administration will send representatives to Rome for the summit called by FAO Director General Diouf on the fifth anniversary of the World Food Summit. The purpose of the WFS:fyl is to seek renewed commitments from world leaders to the hunger reduction goal and build the political will required to achieve it. This meeting will provide President Bush's administration its first opportunity—and challenge—to state in a visible international forum how it views the problem of food security and what it will do to help solve it. The U.S. experience to date on this subject points to some questions and ideas that the administration should consider in preparation for the November meeting.

1 *What does the United States government think about the importance of the global hunger problem to U.S. interests?*

No one will say the global hunger problem is unimportant, but is it an important national security issue? Is it an economic issue for the United States? Is it primarily a humanitarian or moral issue? Clarity and broad public agreement on this point are vital to deciding both the nature and the intensity of the U.S. food security effort. If it is a national security issue, it should be given the leadership attention and resources that such issues deserve. If it is an economic issue, the U.S. effort should be guided by an explicit understanding of the magnitude of that interest and who benefits from it. If it is a humanitarian or moral issue, its significance as a justification for government action and public investment should be debated. Food security undoubtedly involves at some level all of these interests of the United States. Greater clarity about why achieving food security is important to the United States, what factors justify U.S. action on the issue, and how food security ranks in relation to other prob-

lems are obvious prerequisites to deciding what kind of commitment the United States should make.

Greater clarity on those questions is also important for the credibility of the United States and its food security effort, both domestically and internationally. The juxtaposition of U.S. rhetoric concerning the importance of food security and the less-than-convincing follow-through on summit commitments has led some informed observers and participants to criticize the U.S. response to the summit, characterizing it as lacking serious followup and even labeling the action plan a “sham.” One goal of the preparations for the November meeting should be to bring the public pronouncements of the United States on food security into closer alignment with its actual program.

Recommendation: *The United States should re-examine how the goal of reducing global hunger relates to U.S. interests and decide how this goal ranks among its other international objectives.*

2 Is the United States committed to the Summit Plan of Action and hunger reduction goal?

The United States made an important contribution to the summit process by helping shape the summit’s conceptual framework for food security. The Rome Declaration and the Summit Plan of Action emphasize long-term social, political, and economic reform and sustainable improvement in food and agricultural systems as the keys to reducing chronic undernourishment, rather than short-term food aid or other resource transfers. These ideas are repeated in the U.S. Action Plan’s seven strategic priorities. WFS:fyl provides the United States an opportunity to affirm those ideas, with whatever shift in tone or emphasis the new administration considers appropriate.

The specific goal of halving hunger by 2015 has been embraced by the United States in its action plan and other documents and is firmly embedded as an international consensus goal. It cannot be credibly disavowed. The question for the U.S. government is how to use that goal to guide the design of its food security programs and to mark progress. Quantitative goals or targets generally provide a helpful framework for judging what interventions are appropriate and what level of effort is needed. In the case of food security, however, there is a need to consider carefully how the 50% hunger reduction goal can become a planning tool for the United States, rather than merely a rhetorical rallying cry. It is easy to embrace the goal abstractly, but the problem of food security is so multifactorial in its causes and solutions, so dispersed geographically, and so subject to influences beyond the direct control of any one country that the United States alone cannot be meaningfully accountable for achieving it. The question is what specific interventions, perhaps targeted geographically or otherwise, can be credibly advanced as a U.S. contribution. With such interventions in mind and converted into concrete programs, the United States can speak about and act on the goal both effectively and credibly.

Recommendation: *If the World Food Summit hunger reduction goal is an important international priority, the United States should reaffirm its commitment to the hunger reduction goal and the Summit Plan of Action but develop a more focused strategy for helping to reduce hunger in specific, measurable ways.*

3 What resource commitment is the United States prepared to make?

Virtually every observer and participant with whom we spoke considers this question a central test of the U.S. commitment to food security. An increase in resources is clearly a prerequisite for making a meaningful contribution to achieving the summit goal. The 2000 Progress Report on the action plan was frank about it: “We will not meet our food security goals without a substantial increase in resources to build agricultural productivity and rural incomes overseas.”¹⁶³

On July 18, 2001, the U.S. Senate unanimously passed a resolution calling for increased development assistance for sub-Saharan Africa: “Congress should undertake a multi-year commitment

with other donors to provide the resources necessary to cut hunger by one-half in sub-Saharan Africa.”¹⁶⁴ The resolution cites in its findings section a calculation by the Bread for the World Institute that world hunger could be cut in half by 2015 with a “an increase of \$4,000,000,000 in annual funding for effective, poverty-focused development from all donors.”¹⁶⁵ To cut hunger in half in sub-Saharan Africa, Bread for the World calls on the United States to commit an additional \$1 billion annually in poverty-focused assistance, including debt relief.¹⁶⁶

Any significant new resource commitment to address the goal would require strong executive branch support, as well as analysis by agency experts to determine how additional funds would be best spent. At WFS:fyl in November 2001, the new administration will likely be challenged to address the resource issue. Without a clear, positive message on resources, many will question the credibility of the U.S. commitment to achieving the hunger reduction goal.

Recommendation: *The United States should adopt a resource plan and make a budget commitment that is commensurate with the importance of the hunger reduction goal to U.S. interests and reflects the ways the United States believes it can best contribute to achieving it.*

4 How can the United States focus and manage its contribution to achieving the summit goal?

In preparation for WFS:fyl, the U.S. government should consider how to focus and manage its food security effort in a way that can achieve measurable results. One possibility is to select a geographic theme or focus, such as sub-Saharan Africa, and emphasize those specific investments that experts say have the greatest potential to reduce chronic hunger. By targeting larger investments on projects in countries and regions that are most likely to result in sustainable improvement in food security—for example, agricultural development assistance in food-insecure countries that are making the local infrastructure improvements and other reforms required for a successful food system—measurable reductions in hunger could be achieved and models of success could be created.

In considering its next steps on food security, the U.S. government also should address the basic issues of governance and leadership discussed in this report. If the United States seriously accepts the challenge of the hunger reduction goal, and if food security is a high enough priority to justify a significant resource commitment, the government’s effort requires focused and effective leadership. Oversight by a part-time committee does not qualify. To be addressed effectively as a major international issue, the hunger reduction goal needs to be embraced visibly by the White House and the secretary of state. In addition, a specific individual needs to head the effort, have resources and staff, and be publicly accountable for results. Because the effort involves multiple agencies with complex and sometimes competing agendas, this person should have enough status in the government to command the respect and cooperation of agency and department heads, the White House, and Congress. His or her full-time focus should be on food security and other international development issues. The administrator of USAID occupies the logical position in the U.S. government to assume this responsibility. Only with such focused, high-level leadership will it be possible to create and drive targeted strategies and investments and produce measurable, credible progress toward the goal of cutting hunger in half by 2015.

Recommendation: *The president should publicly articulate U.S. interests and objectives on food security and assign overall leadership responsibility for the international dimension of the problem to the secretary of state. The secretary should delegate operational responsibility to the administrator of USAID, who should have clear authority, responsibility, and accountability for managing the international food security effort.*

Conclusion

In a recent speech at the World Bank, President George W. Bush said that “a world where some live in comfort and plenty, while half of the human race lives on less than \$2 a day is neither just, nor stable.”¹⁶⁷ The new USAID Administrator Andrew S. Natsios has emphasized the importance of addressing poverty and hunger, especially in Africa, and has included agriculture among “the four Pillars of USAID.”¹⁶⁸ WFS:fyl in November and the fiscal year 2003 budget the president submits to Congress early in 2002 will be the first indications of how the new administration intends to convert these ideas into concrete, programmatic action.

The lesson of the past is that without clarity of interest and purpose, sustained political commitment at the highest level, and the establishment of workable and accountable governance mechanisms, a large gap will remain between public pronouncement and effective action.

■ ■ ■

- 1 For a good overview of discussions leading to the World Food Summit, see General Accounting Office, *Food Security—Preparations for the 1996 World Food Summit* (November 1996) (GAO/NSIAD-97-44) (hereafter “GAO 96”).
- 2 According to the World Food Summit Plan of Action, “Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.” FAO, *Report of the World Food Summit 13–17 November 1996, Part One* (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, 1997) (hereafter “Summit Report”) at 87.
- 3 Jacques Diouf is an agricultural economist and diplomat from Senegal and has been the FAO director general since 1994.
- 4 GAO 96 at 14.
- 5 GAO 96 at 14.
- 6 These included the International Conference on Nutrition (1992), the Convention on Biological Diversity (1992), the U.N. Conference on Environment and Development (1992), the International Conference on Population and Development (1994), the World Summit for Social Development (1995), the Kyoto Declaration and Plan of Action on the Sustainable Contribution of Fisheries to Food Security (1995), and the Leipzig Declaration on and the Global Plan of Action for the Conservation and Sustainable Utilization for Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture (1996). GAO 96 at 14.
- 7 Low-income, food-deficit countries are net importers of basic foodstuffs with per capita gross domestic product not exceeding the level set by the World Bank to determine eligibility for soft loan (International Development Association) assistance. FAO 1999.
- 8 GAO 96 at 14.
- 9 See Elements for Possible Inclusion in a Draft Declaration and Plan of Action on Universal Food Security, contained in guidance to the U.S. Delegation to the FAO Committee on World Food Security, April 25–28, 1995 (on file with the authors); and GAO Prep 3.
- 10 Economic Research Service, *Food Aid Needs and Availabilities: Projections for 2005* (Washington, D.C., October 1995).
- 11 Letter dated April 27, 1995, from Jacques Diouf, director general of FAO, to Douglas Bennet, assistant secretary, Bureau of International Organization Affairs, State Department.
- 12 Ibid.
- 13 FAS shares responsibility with USAID for managing the U.S. food aid program and works through its International Cooperation and Development unit to improve agricultural systems in developing countries.
- 14 Decision Memorandum for Undersecretary Moos from August Schumacher, Jr., administrator, FAS, dated September 19, 1995 (on file with the authors).
- 15 Ibid.
- 16 Ibid.
- 17 Ibid.
- 18 Ibid.

- 19 There is an important distinction between national “self-reliance” in food and national “self-sufficiency.” Self-sufficiency exists when a country is able to produce for itself all the staple foods it needs to feed itself. The goal of self-sufficiency can be used to justify economic protectionist policies that shield a nation’s farmers from competition. Self-reliance, on the other hand, means that a country can obtain the food it needs through a combination of its own agricultural production and purchases in the international market, without food aid or other external assistance. The United States supports self-reliance as the path to food security because countries have different comparative advantages and it may be neither possible nor optimal in the global economy for a country to attempt to meet all of its food needs through its own agricultural production. This is one reason why, throughout the World Food Summit process, the United States has stressed trade and trade liberalization as keys to achieving food security. As a steady producer of agricultural surpluses, the United States is also motivated by the economic and political imperative to foster the development of markets for U.S. commodities.
- 20 Informational Memorandum for the Secretary re: World Food Summit from Eugene Moos, undersecretary for Farm and Foreign Agricultural Services, dated March 28, 1996 (on file with the authors).
- 21 Personal communication with Buzz Guroff (e-mail dated August 8, 2001).
- 22 Interview with Tom Freedman, former senior White House adviser to President Clinton.
- 23 Briefing Memorandum for Undersecretary Moos re: Your Meeting with Undersecretary of State Timothy Wirth from August Schumacher, administrator, FAS, dated March 27, 1996.
- 24 USDA, *U.S. Forum for the World Food Summit Summary Report* (undated; the forum was held on June 3, 1996).
- 25 U.S. Position Paper at 1.
- 26 Ibid.
- 27 Ibid.
- 28 Ibid.
- 29 Ibid.
- 30 Ibid. at 3–4.
- 31 Ibid. at 5.
- 32 Ibid. at 5–7. Many U.S.-based hunger advocacy groups and other NGOs pushed the government to acknowledge in its summit preparations and position statement that many low-income Americans lack food security. This would both keep a proper focus on the domestic problem and bolster the leadership credibility of the United States on the international dimension of hunger.
- 33 Decision Memorandum for the Interagency Working Group from Buzz Guroff, U.S. National Secretary, dated September 5, 1996 (on file with the authors).
- 34 Informational Memorandum to the Interagency Working Group for the World Food Summit, re: Update on Summit Briefings and Consultations, from Buzz Guroff, national secretary, dated September 15, 1996 (hereafter “September 15 Memo”).
- 35 Attachment to September 15 Memo (Highlights from the September 11, 1996, USDA Public Briefing on the World Food Summit).
- 36 Ibid.

- 37 See generally FAO, *Report of the World Food Summit 13–17 November 1996, Part One* (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, 1997) (hereafter “Summit Report”).
- 38 Summit Report at 5 (Para. 27).
- 39 Summit Report at 69–72 (Annex IV).
- 40 World Food Summit, Documents, List of Participants: Observers from Non-Governmental Organizations (www.fao.org/wfs/index_en.htm).
- 41 FAO, *Report of the World Food Summit 13–17 November 1996, Part One* (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, 1997) at 83 (see Appendix D for a complete copy of the Rome Declaration).
- 42 Ibid. at 84.
- 43 Ibid.
- 44 Ibid. at 84–85.
- 45 Ibid. at 90.
- 46 Ibid. at 93.
- 47 Ibid. at 97.
- 48 Ibid. at 107.
- 49 Ibid. at 111.
- 50 Ibid. at 114.
- 51 Ibid. at 117.
- 52 “A peaceful and stable environment in every country is a fundamental condition for the attainment of sustainable food security.” Para. 3, Summit Plan of Action, Summit Report at 87. “It is imperative that food production be increased, particularly in low-income, food deficit countries, to meet the needs of the undernourished and food insecure, the additional food needs resulting from population growth, demand for new food products due to rising standards of living and changes in consumption patterns.” Para. 23, Summit Plan of Action, Summit Report at 97.
- 53 “A peaceful, stable and enabling political, social and economic environment is the essential foundation which will enable States to give adequate priority to food security, poverty eradication and sustainable agriculture, fisheries, forestry and rural development.” Para. 13, Summit Plan of Action, Summit Report at 90.
- 54 “Production increases need to be achieved without further overburdening women farmers, while ensuring both productive capacity, sustainable management of natural resources and protection of the environment.” Para. 23, Summit Plan of Action, Summit Report at 97.
- 55 “Trade is a key element in achieving world food security.” Para. 37, Summit Plan of Action, Summit Report at 107.
- 56 “[E]mergency food aid cannot be a basis for sustainable food security.” Para. 43, Summit Plan of Action, Summit Report at 111.
- 57 Para. 58(a), Summit Plan of Action, Summit Report at 118.
- 58 Para. 58(b), Summit Plan of Action, Summit Report at 118.
- 59 Para. 60, Summit Plan of Action, Summit Report at 121.
- 60 The United States submitted interpretative statements for the record at the World Food Summit that clarified the U.S. position on certain issues not relevant to this paper. Summit Report at 50–51.
- 61 Statement of the NGO Forum to the World Food Summit, Summit Report at 55–59.
- 62 Ibid.
- 63 Timothy E. Wirth, undersecretary of state for Global Affairs, Address to the National Conference, National Center for Food and Agricultural Policy, Washington, D.C., February 25, 1997.
- 64 Informational Memorandum for the Secretary re: World Food Summit Follow Up, from Eugene Moos, undersecretary, dated December 31, 1996.

- 65 See Wirth address at note 53.
- 66 Interview with Cheryl Morden, International Center for Research on Women and a member of the Food Security Advisory Committee.
- 67 Ibid.
- 68 FASonline, Food Security Update, Establishment of the Advisory Council on Food Security Announced, dated June 30 1997 (www.fas.usda.gov/icd/summit/june30wfs.html).
- 69 FASonline, Food Security Update, January 5, 1998 (www.fas.usda.gov/icd/summit/jano598.html).
- 70 Decision Memorandum for the Interagency Working Group on Food Security re: U.S. Action Plan on Food Security—International Actions, dated December 16, 1997.
- 71 Interviews with Avram “Buzz” Guroff, former national food security coordinator, USDA; G. Edward Schuh, cochair, FSAC; and multiple participants in the IWG process.
- 72 Ibid.
- 73 Ibid.
- 74 See the discussion of the African Food Security Initiative, below.
- 75 Decision Memorandum for the Interagency Working Group on Food Security Co-Chairs, re: Millennium Initiative on Food Security, from Avram “Buzz” Guroff, National Food Security Coordinator, dated May 4, 1998.
- 76 FASonline, Framework for the U.S. Action Plan on Food Security (www.fas.usda.gov/icd/summit/framework.html). The issue of input from groups with a stake in the hunger issue was sensitive because the groups felt insufficiently consulted prior to the World Food Summit, and by the time FSAC first met, much of the work had already been done on key concepts for the action plan.
- 77 Decision Memorandum for the Interagency Working Group on Food Security Co-Chairs, re: Millennium Initiative on Food Security, from Avram “Buzz” Guroff, National Food Security Coordinator, dated May 4, 1998.
- 78 Memorandum to J. Brian Atwood [USAID Administrator] and USAID senior staff, from AA/PPC Tom Fox, Re: Food Security: Choices for USAID, dated April 14, 1998.
- 79 These were research, human rights and the right to food, monitoring progress, education and training, food reserves, macroeconomic policy, sustainability and the environment, public-political support, and international-domestic comparison. Memorandum to the Food Security Advisory Committee from Christine Vladimiroff, Re: Task Areas for Work, dated March 20, 1998.
- 80 Summary Remarks, Meeting of Food Security Advisory Committee, June 10, 1998, Washington, D.C., dated July 11, 1998 (on file with the authors).
- 81 Ibid. at 1.
- 82 Ibid. at 3.
- 83 Ibid. at 1. The cochairs at this time were August Schumacher, Jr., undersecretary of Agriculture for Farm and Foreign Agricultural Services; Wendy R. Sherman, counselor, U.S. Department of State; and J. Brian Atwood, administrator, USAID. FASonline, Food Security Update, Food Security Advisory Committee (FSAC) Holds Second Meeting, dated June 24, 1998.
- 84 Minutes or Briefing Memorandum for the Secretary re: Outcome of the Food Security Advisory Committee (FSAC) Meeting on October 26, 1998, from Lon Hatamiya, Administrator, FAS, no date (copy on file with the authors).
- 85 Ibid.

- 86 IWG, *U.S. Action Plan on Food Security—Solutions to Hunger* (U.S. GPO, Washington, D.C., March 1999) (hereafter “U.S. Action Plan”). Unlike the documents that preceded it, the plan included actions to address hunger in the United States. This reflected advice from FSAC and a judgment by government officials that the United States would not be credible on food security internationally unless it was dealing forthrightly with the problem of hunger in the United States. The domestic elements of the plan are beyond the scope of this report.
- 87 U.S. Action Plan at 5.
- 88 Ibid. at 1. The quoted summaries of the U.S. Action Plan’s “priority” strategies are from the executive summary and correspond to the seven chapters in the plan itself.
- 89 U.S. Action Plan at 46.
- 90 Ibid. at 52.
- 91 Ibid. at 16 and 38. The African Food Security Initiative involves several distinct programs addressing agriculture and rural development in Africa.
- 92 Ibid. at 17.
- 93 Interviews with David Beckmann, president, Bread for the World; Avram “Buzz” Guroff, former national food security coordinator, USDA; and G. Edward Schuh, cochair, FSAC.
- 94 For example, the final U.S. Action Plan emphasizes the role of women and children in food security, the importance of alleviating poverty and ensuring access rather than the mere availability of food, and the contribution of research and trade to food security.
- 95 These views, presented in shaded boxes, addressed such issues as the need to change the politics of hunger and the “right to food.” U.S. Action Plan at 6 and 7.
- 96 U.S. Action Plan at 6.
- 97 Appendix A of the action plan summarizes an analysis of the cost of meeting the summit hunger reduction goal that was prepared for USAID by a consultant (Abt Associates). The consultant’s estimate was that an additional \$43 billion in official development assistance spread over 16 years (or \$2.6 billion per year) would be sufficient to meet the goal. U.S. Action Plan at A-1-2.
- 98 U.S. Action Plan at 9.
- 99 GAO, *Food Security—Factors That Could Affect Progress Toward Meeting World Food Summit Goals* (GAO/NSIAD-99-15, March 1999).
- 100 This meeting was cochaired by August Schumacher from USDA; Michael Southwick, deputy assistant secretary of state (sitting in for Undersecretary Frank Loy); and Emmy Simmons, assistant administrator for global affairs at AID (sitting in for AID Administrator Brady Anderson).
- 101 Anonymous, Proposal for an Implementation Plan for the U.S. Action Plan on Food Security, undated (copy on file with the authors).
- 102 Personal communication with USDA staff.
- 103 Letter from Patricia Garimendi, national food security coordinator, to Colleagues re: Second Draft of U.S. National Progress Report on Implementing the U.S. Action Plan on Food Security. dated September 28, 2000 (on file with the authors).
- 104 Para. 60, Summit Plan of Action, Summit Report at 121 (“[G]overnments... will... [p]rovide regular reports on implementation of the World Food Summit Plan of Action...”).
- 105 Letter to IWG members from Mary Ann Keeffe, national food security coordinator, dated December 14, 1999, transmitting the September 6, 1999, memorandum from Director General Diouf requesting national reports by December 31, 1999.

- 106 IWG and FSCA, *A Millennium Free from Hunger—U.S. National Progress Report on Implementation of the U.S. Action Plan on Food Security and World Food Summit Commitments* (FAS/USDA, November 2000) (hereafter “Progress Report”).
- 107 Progress Report, note on inside cover.
- 108 Ibid. at 8 (italics in original).
- 109 Ibid. at 8–9.
- 110 Ibid.
- 111 General Accounting Office, *Executive Guide—Effectively Implementing the Government Performance and Results Act* (GAO/GGD-96-118, June 1996).
- 112 U.S. Department of State, *Strategic Plan*, September 2000 (hereafter “State Strategic Plan”).
- 113 The seven U.S. national interests are national security; economic prosperity; American citizens and U.S. borders; law enforcement; democracy; humanitarian response; and global issues: environment, health, and population. State Strategic Plan at 11–12.
- 114 State Strategic Plan at 37.
- 115 Ibid. at 39.
- 116 USAID Strategic Plan, 1997 (revised 2000) (hereafter “USAID Strategic Plan”).
- 117 Ibid. at 7.
- 118 One of the “four pillars” of USAID, as announced in May 2001 by USAID’s new administrator, Andrew S. Natsios, is economic growth and agriculture; he cited the 800 million undernourished people in the world as a basis for making this one of USAID’s strategic priorities. See the USAID website at www.usaid.gov.
- 119 USDA, *Strategic Plan for FY 2000–2005* (September 2000) (hereafter “USDA Strategic Plan”).
- 120 FAS, *Strategic Plan: 2001–2005* (undated) (hereafter “FAS Strategic Plan”).
- 121 USDA Strategic Plan at 11.
- 122 Ibid. at 29.
- 123 Ibid. at 34–35.
- 124 FAS Strategic Plan at 5.
- 125 White House Press Office, Fact Sheet on U.S.-Africa Partnership Initiatives (March 24, 1998).
- 126 Implementation of AFSI is included as an action item in Chapter 1: Economic Security and Policy Environment as a way to achieve improved results from U.S. assistance and reinforce U.S. efforts with other donors, U.S. Action Plan at 16; and in Chapter 4: Sustainable Food Systems and the Environment as a way to support sustainable agricultural and aquacultural systems, Progress Report at 38.
- 127 *Report to Congress on Title XII: Famine Prevention and Freedom from Hunger FY 1999* (December 2000) at 2.
- 128 Ibid. at 5. AFSI countries were Ethiopia, Mali, Malawi, Mozambique, and Uganda in 1998; the list was expanded to include Zimbabwe, Liberia, and Rwanda in 1999, and Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania, and Zambia in 2000.
- 129 USAID, *Implementation Report on the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act* (August 1999) at 5.
- 130 Progress Report at 40.
- 131 Public Law No. 105-681 (1998).
- 132 The lobbying campaign for the legislation was spearheaded by Bread for the World, a “nationwide Christian citizens movement seeking justice for the world’s hungry people by lobbying our nation’s decision makers.” See the Bread for the World website at www.bread.org.
- 133 Section 2(a) of the act.
- 134 Section 2(b) of the act.
- 135 Section 301 of the act. The required report was submitted to Congress in August 1999. USAID, *Implementation Report on the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act* (August 1999).
- 136 U.S. Action Plan at 38.
- 137 Ibid. at 30–31.

- 138 USAID, Microenterprise Development Policy Paper (May 1, 2001).
- 139 Personal communication with Katharine McKee, director, Office of Microenterprise Development, USAID.
- 140 Analysis based on OPIC annual reports from 1994 through 2000.
- 141 USAID, Implementation Report on the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act (August 1999) at 44. Personal communication with USDA staff.
- 142 Personal communication with Ray Almeida, Bread for the World.
- 143 Personal communication with USAID staff.
- 144 *Report to Congress on Title XII: Famine Prevention and Freedom from Hunger FY 1999* (December 2000).
- 145 See the CG website at www.cgiar.org.
- 146 *Report to Congress on Title XII: Famine Prevention and Freedom from Hunger FY 1992–1997* (December 1998) and personal communication with USAID staff (2001).
- 147 For a good overview of the programs, see USAID, *U.S. International Food Assistance Report 1999* (Washington, D.C., January 2000).
- 148 Ibid. at 4. Congress declared in the Federal Agricultural Improvement and Reform Act of 1996 that “It is the policy of the United States to use its abundant agricultural productivity to promote the foreign policy of the United States by enhancing the food security of the developing world through the use of agricultural commodities and local currencies accruing under this Act to: 1. Combat world hunger and malnutrition and their causes; 2. Promote broad-based, equitable, and sustainable development, including agricultural development; 3. Expand international trade; 4. Develop and expand export markets for United States agricultural commodities; and 5. Foster and encourage the development of private enterprise and democratic participation in developing countries.” USAID’s 1999 food assistance report to Congress provides a good discussion of efforts to target food aid more effectively to improve food security.
- 149 *World Food Day Report: The President’s Report to the U.S. Congress, International Science and Technology Institute, Inc.*, under the direction of USAID (Washington, D.C., October 16, 1994, and 1995); *USAID Annual Food Assistance Report—1996* (Washington, D.C., November 1996); *U.S. International Food Assistance Report*, USAID (Washington, D.C., January 1998, 1999, 2000).
- 150 Ibid.
- 151 Ibid.
- 152 See Vernon W. Ruttan, *The Politics of U.S. Food Aid Policy: A Historical Review*, in *Why Food Aid?*, edited by Vernon W. Ruttan (Johns Hopkins University Press, 1993).
- 153 Section 416(b) provides the mechanism to donate commodities to needy countries held by the Commodity Credit Corporation (CCC) or through purchase of surplus commodities. Commodities can be distributed directly by the United States or through the World Food Programme.
- 154 USAID, *U.S. International Food Assistance Report 1999* (Washington, D.C., January 2000) at 31–32.
- 155 Ibid. at 71 (Appendix 7); and personal communication with August Schumacher, Jr. (on file with the authors).
- 156 Ibid. at 71 (Appendix 7) (percentage calculations based on the table in Appendix 7).
- 157 Personal communication with August Schumacher, Jr. (on file with authors).
- 158 USAID, *Food Aid and Food Security—USAID Policy Paper* (February 1995).
- 159 Donald G. McClelland, *U.S. Food Aid and Sustainable Development*, Chapter 7: Efficiency Considerations in *USAID Program and Operations Assessment Report No. 22* (October 1998).

- 160 The conceptual framework and strategy for food security developed through the summit process are also compatible with the Strategic Framework and Action Plan released June 19, 2001, by the Partnership to Cut Hunger in Africa, a widely representative group of food security experts, stakeholders, and NGOs (www.africanhunger.org/).
- 161 Communication with Evan Duncan, Office of the Historian, Bureau of Public Affairs, Department of State.
- 162 U.S. Action Plan at A-1.
- 163 Progress Report at 8.
- 164 Section 3, Hegel-Leahy Hunger to Harvest Resolution (S.Con.Res. 53, July 18, 2001). A similar resolution is pending in the House of Representatives. See Hunger to Harvest Resolution: A Decade of Concern for Africa, H.Con.Res. 102.
- 165 Ibid., Section 2(9).
- 166 See the Bread for the World website at www.bread.org.
- 167 Remarks by the President to the World Bank (Office of the Press Secretary, White House, July 17, 2001) (www.whitehouse.gov/news/releases/2001/07/20010717-2.html).
- 168 Keynote speech by USAID Administrator Andrew S. Natsios (USAID's New Approach to Development), at the Advisory Committee on Voluntary Foreign Aid (ACVFA) Public Meeting, May 31, 2001 (www.usaid.gov/press/spe_test/speeches/2001/spo10531.html); and speech by USAID Administrator Andrew S. Natsios at the Partnership to Cut Hunger in Africa Conference, June 27, 2001 (www.usaid.gov/press/spe_test/speeches/2001/spo10627.html).

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Appendix A

JAN 29 1996

Mr. Brian Atwood
Administrator
Agency for International Development
Room 5942
320 21st Street, NW
Washington, DC 20523


Dear Brian:

Enclosed is what I believe to be a well-crafted statement of what the U.S. Government's objectives ought to be for the World Food Summit coming up next November. The statement has been developed at the interagency working group level.

I think it is important that we have formal interagency concurrence on our objectives now so that we can expeditiously pursue U.S. interests in the months ahead. There is substantial private and non-governmental interest in the Summit. We are and will be having extensive interaction within and outside the government on the Summit. Also, drafts of the critical action documents for the Summit have been received and we will need to reach interagency agreement on the U.S. position within the next few weeks.

I look forward to your response and to working closely with you on preparations for the Summit.

Sincerely,



Eugene Moos
Under Secretary for Farm and
Foreign Agricultural Services

Enclosure

U. S. Objectives for the FAO World Food Summit

(1) Assure that the focus for the Summit is on getting developing countries to take necessary actions to increase their self-reliance. This includes:

- * formulating national policies that are not urban-biased, promoting market mechanisms and encouraging rural investment;
- * assuring a climate of political stability;
- * allowing the benefits of freer trade to be realized;
- * adopting proven approaches to sustainable agriculture and production increases.

(2) Demonstrate that the United States continues to play a leadership role in supporting the efforts of countries seeking to overcome chronic hunger and malnutrition. This includes:

- * sharing U.S. agricultural expertise;
- * supporting international agricultural research efforts;
- * assuring that food aid and development assistance are effectively utilized and well-targeted;

(3) Gain consensus on the appropriate role of FAO with respect to world food security. This would be focussed on:

- * providing policy advice to countries committed to achieving self-reliance;
- * sharing agricultural expertise on proven approaches to sustainable development;
- * monitoring the effects of the Uruguay Round on low income food deficit countries.

(4) Assure that the internationally agreed modalities of the Summit are adhered to. These are that it will:

- * produce measurable and accountable results;
- * minimize costs;
- * not be a pledging conference;
- * not seek to create new financial mechanisms.

Appendix B

INTERAGENCY WORKING GROUP ON FOOD SECURITY

Co-Chairs

U.S. Agency for International Development
U.S. Department of Agriculture
U.S. Department of State

Members

Central Intelligence Agency
Environmental Protection Agency
National Intelligence Agency
National Security Council
Office of Management and Budget
Office of Science and Technology Policy
Office of the U.S. Trade Representative
Office of the Vice-President
Peace Corps
U.S. Department of Commerce
U.S. Department of Defense
U.S. Department of Education
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
U.S. Department of the Treasury
U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs

Source: U.S. Action Plan on Food Security: Solutions to Hunger, March 1999.

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Appendix C

U.S. DELEGATION TO THE 1996 WORLD FOOD SUMMIT

Lead

Dan Glickman, secretary of U.S. Department of Agriculture

Alternates

Eugene Moos, undersecretary of Agriculture for Farm and Foreign Agricultural Services, USDA

Timothy E. Wirth, undersecretary for Global Affairs, U.S. Department of State

Senior Advisers

Melinda Kimble, deputy assistant secretary of State for International Organizations

Jeff Lang, U.S. trade representative

Diana Josephson, deputy undersecretary, U.S. Department of Commerce

Catharine Woteki, undersecretary of Agriculture for Research, Education, and Economics

August Schumacher, Jr., administrator, Foreign Agricultural Service

Advisers

Nils M. Daulaire, deputy assistant administrator for Policy and Program Coordination, U.S. Agency for International Development

Thomas Forbord, permanent representative to FAO

Avram E. Guroff, national secretary for the World Food Summit, Foreign Agricultural Service

Leonard M. Rogers, deputy assistant administrator, Bureau for Humanitarian Response, U.S. Agency for International Development

Frank Vacca, alternate permanent representative to FAO

Private Sector Advisers

John Cady, president, National Food Processors Association

Martha Cashman, Land-O-Lakes, Inc.

Walter Hill, Tuskegee University

Charles Johnson, president, Pioneer Hi-Bred International Inc.

C. Payne Lucas, president, AFRICARE

Charles MacCormack, president, Save the Children

Craig McNamara, McNamara Farms

Dianne Dillon-Ridgley, Zero Population Growth

G. Edward Schuh, dean, Hubert Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs

Leland Swanson, president, National Farmers Union

*Source: FASonline press release, Glickman to lead U.S. delegation to the Summit, October 25, 1996.
www.fas.usda.gov/icd/summit/press4.html.*

Appendix D

Rome Declaration on World Food Security

We, the Head of State and Government,* or our representatives, gathered at the World Food summit at the invitation of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, reaffirm the right of everyone to have access to safest and nutritious food, consistent with the right to adequate food and the fundamental right of everyone to be free from hunger.

We pledge our political will and our common and national commitment to achieving food security for all and to an ongoing effort to eradicate hunger in all countries, with an immediate view to reducing the number of undernourished people to half their present level no later than 2015.

We consider it intolerable that more than 800 million people throughout the world, and particularly in developing countries, do not have enough food to meet their basic nutritional needs. This situation is unacceptable. Food supplies have increased substantially, but constraints on access to food and continuing inadequacy of household and national incomes to purchase food, instability of supply and demand, as well as natural and man-made disasters, prevent basic food needs from being fulfilled. The problems of hunger and food insecurity have global dimensions and are likely to persist, and even increase dramatically in some regions, unless urgent, determined and concerted action is taken, given the anticipated increase in the world's population and the stress on natural resources.

We affirm that a peaceful, stable and enabling political, social and economic environment is the essential foundation which will enable State to give adequate priority to food security and poverty eradication. Democracy, promotion and protection of all human rights and fundamental freedoms, including the right to development, and the full and equal participation of men and women are essential for achieving sustainable food security for all.

Poverty is a major cause of food insecurity and sustainable progress in poverty eradication is critical to improve access to food. Conflict, terrorism, corruption and environmental degradation also contribute significantly to food insecurity. Increased food production, including staple food, must be undertaken. This should happen within the framework of sustainable management of natural resources, elimination of unsustainable patterns of consumption and production, particularly in industrialized countries, and early stabilization of the world population. We acknowledge the fundamental contribution to food security by women, particularly in rural areas of developing countries, and the need to ensure equality between men and women. Revitalization of rural areas must also be a priority to enhance social stability and help redress the excessive rate of rural-urban migration confronting many countries.

We emphasize the urgency of taking action now to fulfil our responsibility to achieve food security for present and future generation. Attaining food security is a complex task for which the primary responsibility rests with individual governments. They have to develop and enabling environment and have policies that ensure peace, as well as social, political and economic stability and equity and gender equality. We express our deep concern over the persistence of hunger which, on such a scale, constitutes a threat both to national societies and, through a variety of ways, to the stability of the international community itself. Within the global framework, governments should also cooperate actively with one another and with United Nations organization financial institutions, intergov-

ernmental and non-governmental organizations, and public and private sectors, on programmes directed toward the achievement of food security for all.

Food should not be used as an instrument for political and economic pressure. We reaffirm the importance of international cooperation and solidarity as well as the necessity of refraining from unilateral measures not in accordance with the international law and the Charter of the United Nations and that endanger food security.

We recognize the need to adopt policies conducive to investment in human resource development, research and infrastructure for achieving food security. We must encourage generation of employment and incomes, and promote equitable access to productive and financial resources. We agree that trade is a key element in achieving food security. We agree to pursue food trade and overall trade policies that will encourage our producers and consumers to utilize available resources in an economically sound and sustainable manner. We recognize the importance for food security of sustainable agriculture, fisheries, forestry and rural development in low as well as high potential areas. We acknowledge the fundamental role of farmers, fishers, foresters, indigenous people and their communities, and all other people involved in the food sector, and of their organizations, supported by effective research and extension, in attaining food security. Our sustainable development policies will promote full participation and empowerment of people, especially women, an equitable distribution of income, access to health care and education, and opportunities for youth. Particular attention should be given to those who cannot produce or procure enough food for an adequate diet, including those affected by war, civil strife, natural disaster or climate related ecological changes. We are conscious of the need for urgent action to combat pests, drought, and natural resource degradation including desertification, overfishing and erosion of biological diversity.

We are determined to make efforts to mobilize, and optimize the allocation and utilization of, technical and financial resources from all sources, including external debt relief for developing countries, to reinforce national actions to implement sustainable food security policies.

Convinced that the multifaceted character of food security necessitates concerted national action, and effective international efforts to supplement and reinforce national action, we make the following commitments:

- we will ensure an enabling political, social, and economic environment designed to create the best conditions for the eradication of poverty and for durable peace, based on full and equal participation of women and men, which is most conducive to achieving sustainable food security for all;
- we will implement policies aimed at eradicating poverty and inequality and improving physical and economic access by all, at all times, to sufficient, nutritionally adequate and safe food and its effective utilization;
- we will pursue participatory and sustainable food, agriculture, fisheries, forestry and rural development policies and practices in high and low potential areas, which are essential to adequate and reliable food supplies at the household, national, regional, and global levels, and combat pests, drought and desertification, considering the multifunctional character of agriculture;
- we will strive to ensure that food, agricultural trade and overall trade policies are conducive to fostering food security for all through a fair and market-oriented world trade system;

- we will endeavor to prevent and be prepared for natural disasters and man-made emergencies and to meet transitory and emergency food requirements in ways that encourage recovery, rehabilitation, development and a capacity to satisfy future needs;
- we will promote optimal allocation and use of public and private investments to foster human resources, sustainable food, agriculture, fisheries and forestry systems, and rural development, in high and low potential areas;
- we will implement, monitor, and follow-up this Plan of Action at all levels in cooperation with the international community.

We pledge our action and support to implement the World Food Summit Plan of Action.

Rome, 13 November 1996

Source: FAO Report of the World Food Summit 13–17 November 1996, Part one.

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Appendix E

FOOD SECURITY ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Co-Chairs

G. Edward Schuh, Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs, University of Minnesota

Christine Vladimiroff, Mount Saint Benedict Monastery

Members

Andrew N. Agle, Carter Center

Selina Ahmed, Texas Southern University

David Beckmann, Bread for the World

Margaret Bogle, USDA, ARS Delta NRI

John Cady, National Food Processors Association

Ralph Christy, Cornell University

Ada Demb, The Ohio State University

Betsy Faga, North American Millers' Association

Walter P. Falcon, Stanford University

Rick Foster, W.K. Kellogg Foundation

David J. Fredrickson, Minnesota Farmers Union

Cutberto Garza, Cornell University

Miles Goggans, Goggans, Inc.

Richard Gutting, Jr., National Fisheries Institute

John D. Hardin, Jr., National Pork Producers Council

Walter A. Hill, Tuskegee University

Charles S. Johnson, Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Inc.

Charles F. MacCormack, Save the Children

Whitney MacMillan, Cargill, Incorporated

Ellen Marshall, United Nations Foundation

P. Howard Massey, Jr., Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Cheryl Morden, International Center for Research on Women

Ertharin Cousin Moore,* Jewel-Osco

Sharlye Patton, Commonweal Sustainable Futures Project

Sherrie Whitekiller Perry, Cherokee Nation

P. Scott Shearer, Farmland Industries, Inc.

Barbara Spangler, American Farm Bureau Federation

Goro Uehara, University of Hawaii

Source: U.S. Action Plan on Food Security: Solutions to Hunger, March 1999.

**Appointed to the Board for International Food and Agricultural Development (BIFAD) in October 1998.*

Appendix F

CO-CHAIRS OF THE INTERAGENCY WORKING GROUP

Administrator, U.S. Agency for International Development

J. Brian Atwood, May 10, 1993

Hattie Babbitt (acting)

Brady Anderson, August 2, 1999

Don Presley (acting)

Andrew Natsios, May 1, 2001

Undersecretary for Global Affairs, U.S. Department of State

Timothy Wirth, May 12, 1994, to December 23, 1997

Wendy Sherman (counselor to secretary of state), February 9, 1998

Frank Loy, November 2, 1998

Rand Beers (assistant secretary for International Narcotics and Law Enforcement Affairs)

Paula Dobriansky, April 26, 2001, to present

Undersecretary of Agriculture for Farm and Foreign Agricultural Services

Eugene Moos, May 1993 to December 1996

Dallas Smith (acting undersecretary), May 7, 1997

August Schumacher, August 1997

Hunt Shipman (acting undersecretary), January 2001

J.B. Penn, May 25, 2001, to present

Sources: Personal communication with agency staff, staff bios, and meeting minutes of the Interagency Working Group on Food Security.

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Appendix G

U.S. Action Plan on Food Security: Solutions to Hunger

EXCERPTED LISTING OF INTERNATIONAL PRIORITIES AND ACTION ITEMS

Chapter I. Economic Security and Policy Environment

Encourage a policy environment at home and abroad that enables individuals, households, communities, and nations to attain economic and food security.

Priority

Encouraging an enabling policy environment for food security in concert with the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) Development Assistance Committee (DAC) poverty reduction strategies.

Actions

To achieve improved results from U.S. assistance and reinforce our efforts with other donors:

- The U.S. Government will allocate available development assistance funding in collaboration with recipient countries through processes that involve participation of civil society organizations and other stakeholders. In each country, the United States will strive to provide staff with cultural and gender expertise and will seek similar involvement by representatives of the recipient countries. Priority setting will be guided by the precepts emerging from the North-South partners' dialogue within the OECD/DAC Poverty Reduction Network.
- The U.S. Government, through USAID, is implementing the AFSI on a pilot basis. The initial five country recipients were selected on the basis of a conducive policy environment and a demonstrated will to achieve food security. The initiative focuses on reducing childhood malnutrition through increasing incomes of poor rural people in three areas: increased agricultural production, improved market efficiency and access, and increased trade and investment in agriculture. Particular attention will be paid to increasing the labor productivity of women in their multiple roles as food producers, food processors, entrepreneurs, and caretakers, and to the promotion of improved nutritional status. Further development of the AFSI will involve USAID's Office of Women in Development in program and policy analysis, design, development, and evaluation.
- The U.S. Government will improve coordination of its trade, aid, research and technology transfer, investment guarantees, environmental and geographic information monitoring, and other instruments. It hopes to form a partnership with the private sector and NGOs to achieve this objective.
- In conjunction with its partners in the OECD/DAC Poverty Reduction Network, the U.S. Government will review ongoing programs and policy initiatives in food-insecure countries not eligible for development assistance "particularly those programs promoting economic reform and trade and investment" to ensure a sounder basis for addressing food security needs.

- The U.S. Government will better coordinate its assistance efforts with other donors, especially in the OECD, and with the European Union (through the Transatlantic Agenda), the U.S.- Japan Common Agenda, international financial institutions, and other multilateral organizations. As part of this effort, the U.S. Government will work toward defining and supporting those measures called for by the Marrakesh Decision on Measures Concerning the Least- Developed and Net Food Importing Countries (see also Chapter 2).
- As it is doing in the President's Greater Horn of Africa Initiative (GHAI), the U.S. Government will encourage governments to take responsibility for conflict prevention and resolution, while enhancing the ability of existing international mechanisms to address this area.
- The U.S. Government will work in conjunction with the governments of the 33 other democracies in the Western Hemisphere to implement the actions agreed to in the Second Summit of the Americas held in Santiago, Chile, in April 1998, which focused on the eradication of poverty in the region and on the reduction of hunger and malnutrition.

Chapter 2. Trade and Investment

Promote continued trade and investment liberalization to benefit all countries.

Priority

Further liberalizing trade to ensure improved access to food

Actions

To further strengthen efforts to assure that trade liberalization benefits are realized by low income, food-deficit countries (LIFDCs):

- The United States is preparing for multilateral agricultural trade negotiations to begin in 1999 to continue the reform process agreed to in the Uruguay Round. Fast track negotiating authority is an important policy tool for the Administration to conduct these negotiations.
- In response to the Marrakesh Decision on Measures Concerning the LIFDCs, the U.S. Government and other donor governments are renegotiating the Food Aid Convention to expand the list of products eligible for donation and the membership list, and to establish acceptable and feasible minimum food aid levels. (See Chapter 1 for other actions related to the Marrakesh Decision.)
- The Administration will seek enactment of the African Growth and Opportunity Act.
- The U.S. Government, working in close collaboration with the private sector, will seek to ensure that global trade in biotechnology products is free from non-scientifically based restrictions and protects the rights of privately developed technology while allowing the benefits of this technology to be shared among all countries to enhance food security. It will also seek to counter the use of non-tariff trade barriers that are not in compliance with the Sanitary and Phytosanitary Standards (SPS) Agreement of the World Trade Organization (WTO).
- The U.S. Government, through USDA, will expand the Cochran Fellowship Program to additional sub-Saharan African countries. The program helps develop agricultural infrastructure and agribusi-

ness linkages by exposing senior and mid-level specialists and administrators from middle-income countries and emerging markets to U.S. expertise, goods, and services.

- The Department of State is incorporating an analysis of new instruments, such as the provisions of the Uruguay Round, into its training of Foreign Service Officers to enable more efficient use of these instruments.
- The U.S. Government, through USAID and its partners, will improve the collection of gender disaggregated data and routinely conduct gender analyses to verify that the benefits of trade liberalization are realized and to identify impediments to their full realization. As a part of this process, the Working Group on Women and the Global Economy of the President's Interagency Council on Women will produce a bibliography on the effects of globalization on women.

To catalyze U.S. private investment flows to low-income food-deficit countries:

- The U.S. Government will facilitate the establishment, possibly through a consortium of trade associations, of a "one-stop shop" for small- and medium-sized companies to acquire information on government programs to facilitate their business in food-insecure countries.
- The U.S. Government, through USDA, will facilitate a forum for leaders of private industry on ways in which businesses can contribute to food security.
- As part of its implementation of the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act, the U.S. Government will encourage new investment in African rural development through the Overseas Private Investment Corporation (OPIC).
- As part of its implementation of the African Growth and Opportunity Act, the U.S. Government will promote partnerships in agribusiness technology development, agricultural policy and related fields, and promote non-discriminatory access to these economic opportunities and their benefits.
- The U.S. Government and agribusiness firms will jointly organize and fund a series of agribusiness opportunity missions to encourage private sector joint ventures and investment in the food and agricultural sectors of targeted low-income, food-deficit countries of sub-Saharan Africa, the former Soviet Union, and Asia.
- The U.S. Government will promote public-private sector dialogue on developing sustainable regional and global food supplies in the next century; an example would be a more open food system in the Asia-Pacific region.
- The U.S. Government will continue to work toward the creation of a Free Trade Area of the Americas, a process begun at the First Summit of the Americas held in Miami in December 1994 and expected to be completed no later than 2005.

Chapter 3. Research and Education

Strengthen food security research and educational capacity to expand the productivity and nutritional impact of agriculture and aquaculture and ensure that a broad range of appropriate information and technology reaches producers and consumers.

Priorities

- Adapting U.S. private sector expertise to conditions in developing countries
- Improving the research capacity of U.S. and international institutions and individuals
- Enhancing human capacity, particularly creating greater educational opportunity for women and girls

Actions

To address the need for continued research:

- The U.S. Government will continue its support for public-sector agricultural and other food-related research dedicated to increasing the efficiency, productivity, safety, and long-term viability of U.S. agriculture and fisheries in their role as a major world supplier of food.
- The U.S. Government, through USAID and USDA, will continue to support international agriculture research institutes within CGIAR.
- The U.S. Government, through USAID, will continue to support international agricultural research through its CRSPs.

To better focus U.S. research efforts:

- The U.S. Government and the Land Grant and Sea Grant College systems will continue to reduce duplication and strengthen complementarity of the public and private sectors in the conduct of agricultural and fisheries research and technology.
- The U.S. Government, through USAID, will develop criteria for assessing research programs that include a focus on the gender dimensions of the food security problem and will apply these criteria for future resource allocation.

To expand and strengthen linkages of U.S. resources with the international community:

- The State Universities and Land Grant Colleges will continue efforts to internationalize curricula, extension programs, and research priorities. This effort will include formation of effective partnerships with institutions of higher education, extension and research, and marketing organizations, including cooperatives, in developing countries.
- The U.S. Government, through USAID and USDA, will develop a plan, consistent with the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act, to coordinate the efforts of international agricultural research institutes, U.S. universities and research institutions, and African agricultural, research, and extension agencies.
- The U.S. Government, through USAID and USDA, will continue to promote exchange of scientists to develop a larger cadre of agricultural and fisheries scientists and educators in developing countries.
- The U.S. Government, in collaboration with the State Universities, Land Grant Colleges, Sea Grant University System, and private universities, will make available additional technical and institutional expertise to developing countries.

- The U.S. Government, through USAID and USDA, will join other interested parties in a public-private partnership to enable the Global Forum for Agricultural Research to share information and technology that will link NGOs, private sector agricultural research organizations, international agricultural and fisheries research centers, developing country national agricultural research systems, and U.S. public agricultural research institutions.
- The U.S. Government will support information and mapping systems on food insecurity (see Chapter 6).

To help develop human capacity:

- The U.S. Government, through USAID, will implement the President's Africa Education Initiative.
- The U.S. Government and U.S. NGOs will increase resources devoted to improving the education of girls and women.
- The U.S. Government and U.S. Land Grant Colleges will seek to provide additional postgraduate scholarships for foreign students in agricultural sciences, social sciences, and nutrition.
- The U.S. Government will continue to work with the governments of the other 33 democracies in the Western Hemisphere to ensure achievement by 2010 of the commitment to provide universal access to and completion of quality primary education for all children that was made during the First Summit of the Americas.

Chapter 4. Sustainable Food Systems and the Environment

Integrate environmental concerns into food security efforts to assure sustainability.

Priorities

- Implementing the African Food Security Initiative
- Implementing the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act
- Achieving ratification of the Desertification and Biodiversity Treaties

Actions

To support sustainable agricultural and aquacultural systems:

- The U.S. Government, through USAID, is implementing the African Food Security Initiative (AFSI). (See Chapter 1).
- The U.S. Government will implement the Africa: Seeds of Hope Act of 1998, which directs increased attention to agriculture and rural development in Africa.
- The U.S. Government will support information systems that identify food insecure individuals and populations and provide needed information to policy makers and service providers. (See Chapter 6).
- The U.S. Government, through USAID, will enhance environmental education and outreach to involve NGOs, the private sector, and governments in an effort to promote sustainable development.

- The U.S. Government, through USAID, will undertake a climate change initiative that will focus on three objectives:
 1. Decreasing the rate of growth in net greenhouse gas emissions by reducing emissions from greenhouse gas sources and maintaining or increasing greenhouse gas sinks;
 2. Increasing developing country and transition country participation in the U.N. FCCC; and
 3. Decreasing developing and transition country vulnerability to the threats posed by climate change.
- The U.S. Government, through the Peace Corps, will assess community level needs in countries to strengthen local capacities in food security through a framework integrating agriculture, health, environment, women in development, microenterprise development, and education.
- The U.S. Government will focus resources on understanding the relationship of household decisionmaking to women's status, environmental protection, nutritional status, and overall food security. The results will be incorporated into ongoing programs to promote food security.
- The U.S. Government will lead an international effort to remove land mines threatening civilians by 2010, with priorities based on socio-economic concerns. The U.S. Government will also continue to develop special programs for returning demined land to economic productivity and for promoting the delivery of food to people and markets.
- The U.S. Government, through NOAA, will strengthen efforts to implement the FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries and will share U.S. expertise in fishery science and management to help assess the status of international fishery resources and related ecosystems.
- The Administration will continue its efforts to achieve Senate ratification of the Desertification Treaty and the Convention on Biological Diversity.
- The U.S. Government will continue to support the commitments to sustainable agricultural development agreed to in the Summit Conference on the "Sustainable Development of the Americas" held in Santa Cruz, Bolivia, in December 1996.

Chapter 5. Food Security Safety Net

Improve and, when possible, extend the food and nutrition assistance safety net, especially those programs targeting vulnerable women and children.

Priorities

- Targeting a greater portion of food aid to the most needy in the most chronically food-insecure countries
- Developing and incorporating gender-sensitive analysis and policies into food aid programs
- Improving the efficiency and effectiveness of food aid programs

Actions

To maximize the impact, efficiency, and effectiveness of its food assistance programs:

- The U.S. Government will give priority in its P.L. 83-480 programs to the most food-insecure countries, as well as those that promote market economy, gender equality, and food security policies.

- The Administration will seek authority to expand grant food aid provisions to cover inland transportation costs for:
 1. countries in transition from crisis to development; and
 2. least developed, net food importing countries.
- The United States will support ongoing efforts by the World Food Program and the FAO to develop and implement gender-sensitive analysis and policies in carrying out food assistance programs. The United States will review its own policies and programs to ensure gender consideration.
- The Administration will implement the Bill Emerson Humanitarian Trust, which strengthens the Food Security Commodity Reserve (FSCR) to better respond to unanticipated emergency needs.
- The Administration will seek authority to use Export Enhancement Program (EEP) funds uncommitted at the end of the fiscal year to purchase commodities, as appropriate, for replenishment of the Bill Emerson Humanitarian Trust.
- The U. S. Government will procure and pre-position small quantities of selected commodities in the United States for sudden overseas emergencies.
- The Administration will exercise, when appropriate, authorities under the Commodity Credit Corporation Charter Act to strengthen the capacity of the United States to respond to growing humanitarian food assistance needs.

To further strengthen coordination, especially at the country and regional levels, on the qualitative aspects of food aid:

- The U.S. Government will pursue regional and sub-regional food aid codes of conduct to engage food aid recipients with donors in developing preventive mechanisms to mitigate the increasing demands on international food aid, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. These codes will feature:
 1. development of common terms of reference for carrying out joint country food security assessments in order to achieve widespread consensus on individual country food security profiles that incorporate gender analysis;
 2. better integration of food aid and other food security related objectives and resources;
 3. development of coordinated, gender integrated strategies for refugees and transition situations in given areas;
 4. coordinated distribution to ensure optimum use of logistical resources and commercial networks, in cooperation with local traders and nongovernmental organizations.

To implement the 1994 GATT Uruguay Round decision that donor nations will review the level of food aid commitments and their form:

- The United States is pursuing, in the appropriate international fora, the implementation of the 1994 Marrakesh Agreements and the 1996 Singapore World Trade Organization (WTO) Ministerial, which would consider expanding the list of products eligible for donation and establishing acceptable and feasible minimum levels of food aid. Specifically, the United States will:
 1. encourage dialogue on improved, gender-disaggregated information systems and analytical frameworks to monitor the effects of trade liberalization;

** When "Government" is used, it means as well the European Community within its areas of competence.*

2. continue to work with other major food exporting nations to assure reliability of supply to net food importers;
3. seek to ensure that the World Trade Organization is adequately funded;
4. continue to encourage an increase in the number of food aid donors and to broaden the commodity base to include a wider range of foodstuffs.

Chapter 6. Information and Mapping

Enhance the U.S. ability to identify food-insecure individuals and populations to make better use of food assistance programs and to provide an improved decisionmaking tool for governments and communities in developing countries.

Priority

- Improving regional and national information systems relevant to food security

Actions

To increase the levels of information available on food security:

- The U.S. Government, through USAID, will work with and through regional and sub-regional institutions and their member states to improve the capacity of their information systems relevant to food security, including their capacity to monitor and measure food insecurity and vulnerability on a disaggregated basis, including specific data on gender, household, local, regional, and minority populations' food security.
- The U.S. Government will make relevant unclassified satellite and Geographic Information System (GIS) databases available to food-insecure countries, international organizations, and civil society. NASA will make a global archive of vegetation data available through the Internet as part of the Global Pathfinder Continuation project. USAID will work to increase the access of less developed countries to the Internet and NASA databases.

To improve the ability of decisionmakers at the national, international, and donor level:

- The U.S. Government will join with other countries to support development of FIVIMS that meet the needs of users and generate reliable information for decision-makers at both national and regional levels.
- The U.S. Government, through USAID, will work toward developing a unified international early warning system with global coverage that is oriented around national early warning systems, including capacity-building in sub-regional organizations. It will also make early warning information more accessible and useful to private sector users in the developing countries.
- Through the International Research Institute (IRI), the U.S. Government will support the enhancement of global early warning information products, with climate forecasts targeted on less developed- country regions.

- The U.S. Government, through USAID, will encourage the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) to develop strategic, gender-disaggregated databases, to convert existing center data holdings into a compatible protocol, and to disseminate both to food-insecure countries.

Chapter 7. Food and Water Safety

Assure that food and water production and distribution systems meet public health safety standards as a part of ensuring food security for U.S. and international consumers.

Priority

- Supporting the work of the Codex Alimentarius Commission

Actions

To promote food safety in international trade:

- The U.S. Government, through DHHS in cooperation with USDA, the Department of State, and the U.S. Trade Representative, will develop technical assistance and targeted programs for domestic and foreign growers and producers to promote good agricultural and manufacturing practices for fresh fruits and vegetables in order to minimize microbial hazards.
- The U.S. Government will continue to support science-based activities in the Codex Alimentarius, Office of International Epizootics, and the International Plant Protection Convention, in order to promote food, plant, and animal safety and fair trade.
- The U.S. Government will continue to support and collaborate in international activities, through Codex, WHO, and FAO, to educate growers and consumers about microbial hazards, good agricultural practices, and proper food handling and preparation methods.

In order to assist foreign nations to improve their own food and water safety:

- The U.S. Government, through USAID, will continue to support post-harvest interventions, including agribusiness development, which will increase food safety and promote better conservation with reduced losses in quality.
- The United States will continue to support the efforts of the Global Water Partnership and international organizations that promote strong national water policies and best practices in water quality management.
- The U.S. Government, through USDA in cooperation with other government agencies, will expand its technical assistance to foreign nations to help them meet their WTO obligations on SPS.
- The U.S. Government, through USAID, will continue to support the provision of basic health care, water, sanitation, and other services that reduce infectious disease incidence, especially in vulnerable populations.

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